

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

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### BOASTING A DEARTH OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

THE following editorial, captioned "Costly Junior Colleges," was clipped from the Indianapolis *Star*. As becomes apparent in the first sentence, it was provoked by a release of the American Association of Junior Colleges which disclosed the dearth of junior colleges in Indiana.

Indiana should feel complimented by the publicity of the American Association of Junior Colleges, which places the state far down in the list of school systems providing that type of education. Maurice Early refers to the association ballyhoo in his column in the *Star*. California heads the propaganda list with 64 junior colleges having 73,669 students enrolled. Hoosierdom reports four such institutions with an enrolment of 674.

If the Californians and others wish to spend huge sums for an educational luxury they have that privilege. Indiana, however, should be thankful it has escaped this costly adjunct. Its money should continue to yield more ample returns in supplying well-rounded high-school courses, meeting general needs, so far as possible, but holding aloof from purely collegiate work.

The junior college is an educational fad which has not yet proved its worth. It confers certain advantages, of course, but is opposed chiefly on the major ground of unnecessary expense. The public-school systems are not immune to the demand for economy. The modern high school frequently has been criticized because its curriculum is said to include undue emphasis to preparation for college rather than to the welfare of students whose educational careers will end with award of the high-school diploma.

321

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Some states may find it expedient to establish junior-college courses to compensate for lack of adequate higher educational facilities. That situation does not exist in Indiana, which is well served by state-supported institutions and endowed universities and colleges. The junior college imposes a burden on the taxpayers which, in this state, at least, is not justified by educational need.

Indiana, on the whole, has been fortunate in the development of another educational link, the junior high school. That institution has served a real need in bridging the gap formerly existing between grade and high schools. The spenders in many cases demanded erection of special junior high school buildings, adding huge sums to public-school budgets. Indianapolis has an efficient junior high school system developed by utilizing existing facilities. The low rating of Indiana in the number of junior colleges is a compliment to the judgment of educational leaders and taxpayers, even though deplorable to the propaganda department of the national organization.

If one were to review the controversy over the establishment of public high schools that raged through the latter half of the past century, little difficulty would be experienced in uncovering almost identical arguments against free and otherwise accessible education at the high-school level. To establish high schools, these arguments ran, would prove costly and would duplicate opportunities for education at that level already provided under private auspices and in conjunction with the colleges and universities of that day. In the meantime social and economic trends have raised the former controversy to the junior-college level, and we are confronted once more by the same hoary objections and rationalizations. The low rating of Indiana in the development of junior colleges is no more a compliment to the judgment of educational leaders and taxpayers there than would have been a similar low rating on high schools fifty to seventy-five years ago.

It is impossible to believe that the youth of junior-college age in Indiana are as "well served by state-supported institutions and endowed universities and colleges" as are such youth in states served by similar institutions *and* a number of well-placed public junior colleges. Proof of the increased popularization of education at the level concerned through establishing public junior colleges has been at hand for some time. Because of this increased popularization the movement will spread to include states like Indiana. The most that objectors like the editor of the *Star* can accomplish is to retard an inevitable development.

## ADVOCACY OF ANTHROPOLOGY FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL

THE University of Washington's *College of Education Record* for February contains an article on "The Teaching of Anthropology in the Secondary Schools." The author, Melville Jacobs, assistant professor of anthropology in the University, is not describing the status of anthropology in the high school but, rather, is arguing that it be given a place there. We quote major portions of his forceful and optimistic statement.

Why should anthropology be taught to high-school students? A very brief treatment of anthropological science may be enough to demonstrate the values and consequences of teaching it to adolescents.

For a generation since the Scopes trial in Tennessee, during the last years of the life of William Jennings Bryan, it has become possible to teach in high schools the evidences for the early biologic history of the prehumans who lived during the hundreds of thousands of years before the advent of modern man. The science of fossil man has made revolutionary advances during the last ten years. It now provides a well-documented and lengthy time perspective of pre-human and human history which is entirely acceptable to all Catholic and Protestant scholars and religious thinkers. Its presentation is fascinating to high-school students. The time orientation given about early human biologic history is indispensable for a modern type of education.

Too long have the history and geography books suffered from terminology such as the human "races," and from nonsensical labels such as the "white," "black," "red," and "yellow" "races." Many people talk about such entities which are nonexistent according to modern science. Most Freshman college students as well as much of the population of our land are stuffed with antiquated verbiage and opinions about the "races." The general ignorance as to what "race" is, and as to what are the evidences for biologic differences between "races," is so appalling as to constitute a national menace to our democracy and democratic institutions. We are living in a period of organized advocacy of lies about "races" and "race" differences. We live and work side by side with peoples whom we have not been taught to understand according to the evidences modern science now has available for such understanding. Were no other field of anthropology to be presented in secondary curriculums, it should be insisted that the discoveries of this field alone are of such immediate social importance that all leaders in education should exert every effort to translate them to the high-school teachers at the earliest possible date. A closely related science, so-called "race" psychology, gives a similar approach to the same subject matter, and is easily taught. Too much emphasis cannot be put upon the social and national importance, for our American democracy, of taking these rich and well-founded scientific fields out of the academic cloisters and into the wide arena of American secondary education.

The vast anthropological science called prehistory or archeology can be presented so excitingly and so simply to high-school students that it is curious that it has not been done widely already. This science can be drawn upon to give an outline of the fundamental technologic and cultural advances made during the enormous past history of the human race. The major steps ahead in early human history can be summarized thus: there was early an advanced intelligence superior to that of a partially tree-dwelling manlike ape; myriad languages developed in various regions; there were successive steps from a wild to a partially domesticated and then to a fully domesticated and completely modern human type with all the sociocultural implications of those advances; stupendous social changes occurred during the transitions from all sorts of hunting-fishing-food-gathering economies to agricultural and pastoral types of economy; immediately following these economic changes there occurred expansions to vast cities and empires, with new technologic revolutions. All these changes took place long before the time of Egypt and Babylon. Additions such as these to the usual orientations of high-school history courses are now needed for preparing the student-citizen to understand the human world as contemporary science envisages it.

The closely related field of theory concerning social evolution is neither intricate nor esoteric. It treats of the history of human family life, the origins of villages, towns, forms of government and law, commerce, inventions, religions, arts. The student sees that here and now in our society is only a brief moment in a vast and continuously changing world of many regional cultures, stretching through tens and hundreds of thousands of years of culture change. Petty localism, narrow provincialism, regional conceits cannot long survive an educational system that provides wide geographic and long-time vistas—vistas now barely suggested by teachers because they themselves are little informed of such things. Along with such perspectives will go more detailed presentations of the village and cultural life of the hundreds of millions of modern peoples who lack our sciences and technology, our material wealth and power, or our armaments. These peoples, most of them of darker pigmentation, are almost everywhere quite falsely, with almost unconscious scurrility, certainly with crass Philistinism, characterized as "backward," "savage," "barbarians," or "primitives," even by some social scientists who ought to be more careful about the terminology they use. It is long established that all "native" or so-called "primitive peoples" are truly civilized and cultured in any warrantable sense of such terms, though scientifically based technologies, writings, vast surpluses of material wealth, or armaments be foreign to them. It is known that such people do possess associational intricacies and intellectual, psychological, and artistic complexities and refinement which make the contrasted human products of our own culture often appear crude in the extreme. . . . It is of the greatest importance in the present period of history that newly established proofs of this type be taken out of the scientific journals and college seminars and brought into the world of secondary education. The ancient prejudices which affirmed that



other "races" and peoples are hopelessly inferior to us, or are "unprogressive," must be met by the abundant evidences exhibiting cultural change, inventiveness, and plasticity, at all times among all peoples.

The science of comparative language can be completely cleared of technical minutiae, leaving a body of simple theory about the nature of languages the world over. The teaching of such theory in high schools will rapidly end the present near-universal notions about the comical, inadequate, or difficult content of foreign languages. All teachers of ancient and foreign languages would be immeasurably assisted in their work by the presence of anthropological teaching in their schools, teaching which would mold entirely different attitudes towards the strange and the unheard-of in language. . . .

The endless riches in "native" handicrafts and artistic products are sooner or later bound to impinge upon our own arts and artists, where this has not already occurred. The arts of other peoples, based upon relatively limited tools and technologic resources, are especially intelligible and can be taught and employed as almost infinite supplementation of the present resources of art teachers. Few high-school art teachers appreciate how much can be done to expand their technical teaching resources, as well as the human and social meaning of their teaching of art, by tapping the limitless stores of art work which are possessed from hundreds of so-called "native" peoples. The social place and role of such arts can best be explained and interpreted by trained anthropologists working in co-operation with art teachers.

The author leaves one in doubt whether he advocates offering anthropology as a separate subject or incorporating content and experiences peculiar to the field in courses already in the secondary-school curriculum. The tradition is, whenever new content calls for recognition in the school curriculum, to propose that a new course be added to an already overloaded secondary-school offering. Consideration of Professor Jacobs' case for anthropology leads to the belief that aspects of this field of instruction might well be introduced as units or other subdivisions of courses already being given, such as biology, geography, the social studies, and general language. Without a doubt alert teachers in these fields have already incorporated certain aspects of anthropology in their courses. In schools following the plan of the core curriculum, certain aspects of the field are appropriate for inclusion in the core.

#### HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

**T**HE innovations described in this month's "Here and There" were reported by eight secondary schools in seven states scattered from the Atlantic seaboard to the Pacific. The practices are

concerned with personal-interest activities, a spraying service maintained by classes in agriculture, the reading of newspapers, the home room as a pupils' lyceum, a co-ordinating council in a rural community, installation of a museum and exhibits, a booklet of course descriptions for guidance, and individualization of an orientation program.

*Personal-interest activities in junior high school* In the Sanford Junior High School in Minneapolis, Minnesota, of which Edwin C. Culbert is principal, an extended list of "personal-interest activities" is open to election by pupils in Grades VIII B and VIII A. The list includes the art of entertaining, art handicrafts, aviation, band, clay modeling and wood- and soap-carving, creative writing, decorative needle-work, dramatics, advanced dramatics, gardening in the home, geometric design, mixed glee club, knitting, model airplane design and construction, orchestra, photography, printing, public speaking and debate, "Sanford news class," sketching and painting, travel class, and verse-speaking choir. The pupil's school week consists of thirty class periods, of which twenty-five are prescribed and the remainder given over to one of these activities. The pupil indicates his first and second choices on a form, which is also signed by the parent to show his approval of the selection. Accompanying the form is a five-page mimeographed bulletin describing the activities, which aids in making choices.

*Spraying service carried on by agriculture classes* The agricultural department of the Athens (Illinois) Community High School, of which W. B. Braeuninger is principal, last year purchased a new Meyers spraying outfit at a cost of \$275 to replace an older sprayer. During the season the classes in agriculture applied more than nine thousand gallons of spray materials. Most of the spray was applied to home apple orchards of about forty school patrons, although the sprayer was used also on potatoes, soybeans, shrubbery, and in the killing of Canada thistle and the whitewashing of the interior of barns. The sprayer is now being operated by a graduate of the high school who is farming at home with his father. He receives two and three-

fourth cents for each gallon of spray supplied and furnishes the gas and oil and, in summer, any help needed. In the winter boys in the agricultural department take turn about in helping. The class in farm mechanics keeps the sprayer in repair, and the class in crops plans the spraying schedule. Last year the work carried on by the classes amounted to \$542.64. Careful accounts are kept by the class with each customer. After all expenses for the year have been paid and a sum has been laid aside toward replacement of the sprayer, the balance is used by the Future Farmers of America for its various activities.

*Reading newspapers as a "before-school" activity* According to Harold C. Hemond, teacher of science in the Amherst (Massachusetts) Junior High School, the pupils of this school use the ten-minute period before the morning session opens in reading the morning newspaper. One pupil is appointed each week to be "reader" for that week. The reader may himself select the materials to be read. Mr. Hemond admits that the comic page leads in popularity, but he says that some attention is always given to national and local news. It is his belief that this latter fact gives the activity some real value. Pupils, if left to their own devices, in the main would not see the morning paper or would read merely the comic and sports sections.

*Utilizing the home-room period for a pupil lyceum* In the high school at Nevada, Iowa, the Monday home-room period is used as a pupils' lyceum. The home-room periods during the remaining days of the school week are devoted to other concerns. H. C. Engelbrecht, principal, reports that there are eight home rooms in the school and that the pupil speakers, who are introduced by the chairmen of the home rooms, make talks on subjects stressing the relation of the school to the community. During an eight-week period (a succession of eight Mondays), a given student will give his talk to all eight home-room groups. Illustrative of subjects that have been discussed in the lyceum are "Public Health in Nevada," "Shake Hands with Our City Government," and "Our City Library."

*A co-ordinating council in one rural community* The co-ordinating council movement has been gaining rapid headway. However, it is more characteristic of large than of small and rural communities. What our informant, Principal A. J. Rathbone, believes to be the only co-ordinating council in a country community was organized two years ago at Centerville, California, location of the Washington Union High School, which, like the co-ordinating council referred to, serves Washington Township. The organizations represented at the initial meeting of the group in January, 1938, which was called by the district superintendent (who is also high-school principal) were the Child Welfare Club, the Woman's Club, the American Legion, the Boy Scouts, the justice courts, the district attorney's office, the county health department, the churches (by a Catholic priest and a Protestant pastor), the Board of Education, the National Youth Administration, the county charities commission, the Bureau of Rehabilitation, the press, and the high school (by the principal and deans). A representative of the press has acted as secretary.

The council holds monthly luncheon meetings at the high-school cafeteria. The purpose of the group has been to discuss problems which concern the youth of the district. The council is not an executive body but limits itself to discussing problems and making recommendations to the member-organizations for community projects or for assisting individuals. The aid may be financial, medical, or moral, and Principal Rathbone says that the aid has been forthcoming in all cases where recommendation has been made. The organization is entirely informal, and the high-school principal is chairman. In two years the council has held no elections, collected no dues, nor handled any funds. However, through the recommendations made, numerous young persons have been aided, and several community projects relating to health, recreation, speech difficulties, and pupil employment have been carried through successfully by one or more of the constituent organizations. Members of the council are under no obligation except to devote two hours of time each month to the sessions of the group, which have enjoyed practically full attendance of the members.

*Another high school having museum and exhibits* Central High School at Purdy Station, New York, has recently established a museum with showcases, cabinets, wall cases, and bulletin boards. F. C. Warner, principal of the school, reports that a number of permanent exhibits, donated by local persons and pupils, are already installed and that certain cases are reserved for temporary displays of interest to pupils and teachers. The exhibits to date have included fruits, flowers, Colonial implements, weapons, costumes, letters and documents of local history, arts and crafts, dolls, industrial arts, home economics, model airplanes, Indian relics, baby pictures of teachers and pupils, fishing tackle, snapshots, mineral ores, fossils, and a large number of the industrial and commercial exhibits obtainable. Bulletin boards provide temporary display space for work of various departments, and wall cases contain pictures of organizations, teams, "Washington trips," band, glee club, and the like.

*A book of course descriptions for use in guidance* The Davenport (Iowa) High School, of which A. I. Naumann is principal, has this year published a thirty-seven-page mimeographed assembly of descriptions of courses offered in the school. The publication is bound under the title "Educational Guidance," and an introductory word on the title-page states that it is intended to "be of help to parents and teachers in the guidance of pupils for the planning of their high-school work for 1940." The descriptions are introduced in a grouping of courses by fields, for example, art, English, and foreign languages. Each group opens with a list of courses offered, and the list is followed by a "summary" of each course, indicating duration, credit, prerequisites, "suggested requisites," aims, and content.

*Orientation individualized in junior high school* A description of the procedures in orientation of new pupils in the Theodore Roosevelt Junior High School in Philadelphia, of which Clarence H. Carback is principal, indicates that it is highly individualized, or personalized. Although group procedures are used, effort is made throughout to have the results pene-

trate to the individual through his personal experience. From the first, the aim is to impart to the pupil the feeling of "belonging." The home-room teacher, with whom pupils begin their school relationships, welcomes them without ceremony and encourages them to raise questions concerning what to do—the subjects to take, the time and place for lunch, the location and operation of lockers, the location of classrooms, pupils' locations in the auditorium. These places are visited. The adviser reassures the newcomers by referring to mistakes often made by pupils. Older pupils assist in the orientation; for example, in the period before lunch on the first day, two older pupils appear in the home room to explain the regulations concerning the cafeteria: how to get change, how to get hot dishes and other items in the diet, what to do with milk bottles, etc. The older boy goes with the boys and the older girl accompanies the girls to the locker-rooms and then to the cafeteria. The last period of each day of the first two weeks is spent with the home-room adviser. Principal Carback's statement submits lists and describes many other details in a comprehensive plan of personalized orientation.

#### COMMENT ON SKILLS NEEDED BY THE COLLEGE ENTRANT

ONE may hope that secondary schools are on the threshold of emancipation from the curriculum control exercised almost immemorially by the colleges. The past several years have seen the completion of several investigations minimizing the significance of particular patterns of secondary-school subjects for subsequent success of students in higher institutions. Preliminary reports from the Eight Year Study of the Progressive Education Association point in the same direction. Thought along these lines makes appropriate quotation of an editorial in the *Educational Research Bulletin*, published by the College of Education of the Ohio State University. The comment is called "College Entrance Skills."

Skills are more important than knowledge for college admission. In taking this position we recognize that we cut across the generally accepted policy of admission agencies, which state requirements in terms of high-school subjects. The subjects differ more or less at random from college to college: some institutions weight foreign languages heavily; others insist upon biological and physical sciences; still others require only high-school graduation. But through all the



patterns runs the common design of knowledge as the essential requirement for admission.

There seems to be no common judgment, however, about which of the subjects gives superior training. Mathematics has a clear case for engineering and a modicum of algebra for some of the college science courses. Foreign languages can be more rapidly learned in college than in high school. There is some consensus that the high-school commercial curriculum is not so effective as some other curriculums, but whether the ability of the students in the commercial curriculum is the equal of those in other courses is not clear. By and large it does not seem to matter greatly what subjects an entrant studies from among the current offerings of the high schools.

The knowledge concept does not belittle study skills; it assumes them. Granting that if one has passed a course he must have acquired the necessary skills of mastery, it is not necessary to examine his skills. Particularly is this the case when the subjects he studies in high school are much the same as those in college—just more social science, more physical science, or more languages. The high-school skills will carry over into college.

The fallacy of this position lies in the fact that many students who pass courses in high school do not always have excellent study skills. They have some skill, enough to satisfy the high-school official who gives his seal of approval by passing them; but they do not have the skills sufficiently well in hand to meet the stiffer conditions and faster pace of college learning. Then they get into trouble.

In the judgment of many people a student is likely to succeed in college if he reads well and writes correctly; his knowledge can be taken for granted except in occasional cases. If he completes any standard high-school curriculum and possesses these two batteries of skills to a competent degree, he will succeed in college.

It is our conviction that high-school teachers should identify certain study skills for the prospective college entrant. In college he will have to read extensively; consequently his reading rate and comprehension level should be definitely tested. Because references are widely used in college, the entrant's ability to skim and select materials should be clearly appraised by the student and his teachers. Because writing is a major college activity—papers, themes, examinations—the entrant's skills in written work should be known. His ability to spell, to organize, to write a grammatical sentence should be evaluated.

Even if this line of reasoning is not correct, it is still a fact that many of the sad failures among college Freshmen can be averted by vigorous measures in the high school. Remedial courses in college have saved some Freshmen after they are on the spot. Every high-school Junior who is expecting to enter college should be given skill tests in reading, writing, and algebra (for science curriculums). If he is not facile in the use of these skills, he should then be put through intensive class coaching until he has reached the appropriate level. If he does

not gain sufficient skill, he should be advised against entering college. Another unit of knowledge is no effective substitute.

The practice materials for such remedial work in high school in spelling, reading, and writing are available and in use. A number of high schools are caring for the problem. A skills cleanup for college entrants should be established in every high school that sends students to college.

#### IN PAPER COVERS

*Spotlighting the American Youth Commission* The March *High School Journal*, published by the Department of Education of the University of North Carolina, is devoted to the American Youth Commission. Chiefly it contains articles by the former and present directors, respectively, Homer P. Rainey and Floyd W. Reeves, and by other members of the staff and consultants of the commission. Among titles of the articles are "The Program of the American Youth Commission," "Youth Think about Their Problems," "The C.C.C. Camps and Their Relation to Youth," and "Inequality of Educational Opportunity and the Problems of Youth." Regular features of the *Journal* are continued, namely, the "Editorial of the Month," "Unpublished Research in Secondary Education," "Progressive Practices in High Schools," "In Other Journals," and "Reviews of Recent Books." Articles in the *Journal* for April emphasize guidance.

*Summarizing the status of the teaching profession* A recent Research Bulletin of the National Education Association (Volume XVIII, Number 2, March, 1940) does just what, as its title indicates, it is intended to do, namely, give a picture of *The Status of the Teaching Profession*. In twenty-four pages of textual matter and telling graphical representations, it presents succinctly facts concerning "General Composition of the Teaching Population," "Educational Preparation and Certification," "Professional Experience and Mobility," "Salaries and Economic Condition," "Professional Load," "Provisions for Tenure," "Provisions for Retirement," "Professional Associations of Teachers," "Mental and Physical Health," and "Academic Freedom." Also included are a brief section on "Trends Affecting the Future Status of Teachers" and a list of "Sources of Information." Single

copies of this bulletin may be purchased for twenty-five cents of the National Education Association at 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D.C. The price per copy is lower in quantities.

*Office of Education publications about guidance*

For something more than a year now the United States Office of Education has maintained its Occupational Information and Guidance Service. At the February meetings in St. Louis of the National Vocational Guidance Association, the chief of this service, Harry A. Jager, reported on the accomplishments during the year. The topics under which these accomplishments were listed are the stimulation of state programs of guidance, "Field Service," "Developments in Co-operation," "Service by Correspondence," "The Problem of National Occupational Trends," "Publications," "Studies and Research," and "Other Problems."

Two of the publications recently issued are at hand. One of these is *Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance* by Giles M. Ruch and David Segel, designated as consultants. Chapter titles of the eighty-four-page bulletin are "The Importance of the Individual Inventory in Guidance," "Essentials of the Individual Inventory," "The Value for Guidance of Items in the Individual Inventory," "The Determination of Aptitudes," "Selection of Tests," and "Selected Tests with Special Reference to Guidance." Copies of this bulletin (Occupational Information and Guidance Service, Number 2) are purchasable of the Superintendent of Documents in Washington for fifteen cents. The other publication is a thirty-six-page mimeographed document, "A Source File on Vocational Guidance," prepared by Marguerite W. Zapoleon, who is a specialist in the Occupational Information and Guidance Service. Workers in guidance will find the publication useful in classifying and filing materials relating to vocational guidance. As no price is indicated, the assumption is that copies may be secured without charge on request to the United States Office of Education.

*Curriculum conference-study group proceedings*

A regular feature of the summer sessions at the University of Texas is the "Curriculum Conference and Study Group," which, according to its directors, is "our interpretation of the work-

shop idea on this campus each summer." The "Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Curriculum Conference and Study Group" are now available for distribution. They are issued in a volume extending through 277 mimeographed pages. Copies are sold at one dollar by the University Co-operative Store in Austin, Texas. The record of proceedings is reported by "divisions," which are headed "Panel Discussions," "Demonstrations," "Bibliographies," and "Reports of the Core Area and Other Groups." Within the divisions are materials and discussion on a diverse array of problems of curriculum improvement.

#### THE 1940 INSTITUTE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS OF HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

THE annual Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions will be held on July 10, 11, and 12, 1940, in the Lounge of Judson Court, the University of Chicago. The central theme of the institute will be "Student Personnel Services in Colleges and Universities." Two sessions will be held during each of the three days.

The first session of the institute on Wednesday morning, July 10, will deal with the obligation of institutions of higher education to their students. The afternoon session on Wednesday will be devoted to the administrative organization for student personnel services. A number of speakers will describe briefly the plan for administering student personnel service in various types of higher institutions, including large universities, liberal-arts colleges, and junior colleges.

The morning session on Thursday, July 11, will treat the topic of institutional provision for understanding students, including such matters as the kinds of information needed, the use of anecdotal records, and the contribution of the health service to the better understanding of students. The Thursday afternoon session will consider the interpretation and the use of data in counseling students.

On Friday, July 12, the morning session will be concerned with the extra-classroom life of the student. Papers will be presented on the housing of students, extra-curriculum activities, remunerative employment, and the participation of students in institutional

government. The closing session on Friday afternoon will relate to evaluations of student personnel service.

Final arrangements have not, at this writing, been completed with all the speakers for the program. The following persons have agreed to contribute papers: John L. Bergstresser, consultant, General Education Board, New York City; Edward Bordin, administrative fellow, Student Personnel Co-ordination Service, University of Minnesota; D. D. Feder, assistant director of the Personnel Bureau, University of Illinois; Kenneth L. Heaton, director, Cooperative Bureau for Educational Research, Lansing, Michigan; L. L. Jarvie, chairman of the Educational Research Committee, Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, Rochester, New York; Frank A. Jensen, superintendent, La Salle-Peru Township High School and Junior College, La Salle, Illinois; Elias Lyman, chairman, Board of Personnel Administration, Northwestern University; Ruth O. McCarn, counselor to women, Northwestern University; Basil H. Pillard, dean of students, Antioch College; T. R. Sarbin, counselor in the Testing Bureau, University of Minnesota; William E. Scott, research associate, College Success Study, Progressive Education Association; E. G. Williamson, co-ordinator, Student Personnel Co-ordination Service, University of Minnesota; C. Gilbert Wrenn, professor of educational psychology, University of Minnesota. The following members from the staff of the University of Chicago will present papers: A. J. Brumbaugh, dean of the College; Dr. Charles B. Congdon, physician, Health Service; Dr. Dudley B. Reed, director of the Health Service; L. L. Thurstone, Charles F. Grey distinguished service professor of psychology; Ralph W. Tyler, chairman of the Department of Education and chief examiner of the Board of Examinations; Robert C. Woellner, executive secretary of the Board of Vocational Guidance and Placement; George A. Works, dean of students and university examiner.

The University of Chicago extends to administrative officers and faculty members of all higher institutions, including universities, liberal-arts colleges, teachers' colleges, and junior colleges, a cordial invitation to attend the institute. No fee is charged for attendance at the institute. Room and board will be provided in the dormitory adjacent to the conference room from Wednesday morning, July

10, to Friday evening, July 12, for \$8.50. Reservations may be made through William J. Mather, bursar of the University of Chicago. For additional information, address John Dale Russell, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

#### WHO'S WHO FOR MAY

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## THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE PROGRAM IN ONE SECONDARY SCHOOL

PAUL B. JACOBSON

University High School, University of Chicago

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### THE CURRICULUM IS ALWAYS CHANGING

IT IS a truism to say that the school is a social institution which exists for the purpose of preparing youth to live in contemporary society. This task has been the function of the school; it is the function of the school; it will be the function of the school. This purpose implies that curriculum reorganization will be a continuous process necessitated by changes in society. Just as the 1930's were unlike the 1890's or the 1830's, so will the 1960's differ from the 1900's and 1930's. Under the impact of organized groups in society the school changes slowly, but it always lags behind the demand from outside because the school is a conservative institution manned by busy and conservative people. From the impact from without the school a curriculum has evolved, largely by accretion. First there existed the classical curriculum, which aimed to prepare youth for the ministry. This preparatory or vocational curriculum took upon itself the name "cultural" or "liberal" when it could no longer claim to be preparatory for a vocation. Nevertheless it remained as part of the offering of the school, to which other courses were added until the curriculum spread out like a fan. In a large city high school, for example, a pupil could easily spend twenty years, if he wished to "take" all the courses, and still not have time to play in the band! Each of these courses came in as the result of a felt need, but they do not tend to make a coherent whole.

Today the emphasis in discussion is on general education which will prove functional in contemporary society. The organization implied by the term "general education" has been defined in several ways. Usually the assumption is that, if all persons are to be made ready for their responsibilities as citizens, they must be given contact with those areas of instruction which will achieve the desired ends.

This result is obviously impossible if the youth chooses his courses, cafeteria fashion, from an array which would require two decades to accomplish. Some persons would abandon separate subjects entirely and substitute the core curriculum, which occupies a large part of the pupil's day, say one-half or one-third, and provide electives to make up the remainder of the pupil's program. Other persons would make other adaptations. At the University High School of the University of Chicago the faculty feels that the reorganizations can be carried on within the present framework of the subject-matter departments.

The social forces which demand reorganization of the school curriculum may be summed up under many headings. Three of these will be mentioned and will be implemented in abbreviated fashion.

#### TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP IS IMPERATIVE

The first reason advanced why schools must be fitted to present-day life is new citizenship demands. Democracy cannot work if 75 per cent of the voters have no better understanding of economic and governmental problems than that furnished by an eight-year elementary school and a traditional high school which teaches American history and structural civics. How anyone who understood the economic and social issues involved could vote for "\$30 every Thursday" is incomprehensible; yet this proposal so nearly passed in California in 1938 that it was referred to the voters again in 1939. That time it was decisively beaten.

The New York survey into the cost and character of education showed that, except in a few schools, education for citizenship was seriously neglected. For instance, the New York pupils knew that Herbert Hoover was a food administrator during the World War; they knew the provisions of the Ordinance of 1787; they knew what the pocket veto is and how many senators there are; and they knew that the Twenty-first Amendment ended the prohibition era; but they did not know that the date of President Roosevelt's inauguration was linked with the "lame-duck" amendment.<sup>1</sup> Their lack of

<sup>1</sup> F. T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, pp. 19-20. The Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939.

knowledge of international affairs was appalling. The pupils were graduated or dropped out of school with an inadequate knowledge, understanding, or interest in the underlying economic, international, and governmental public questions. Since they did not know, they retained their prejudices and would decide questions on that basis.

#### SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR CITIZENSHIP TRAINING

In an attempt to furnish, in the social sciences, material which comes to grips with social, economic, and governmental problems of vital importance, the social-science courses in Grades VII-X of the University High School have been organized around a series of units which give insight into the problems confronting the people of the United States. Among the units taught in Grades VII and VIII may be mentioned "Schools and Education," "Amusement and Sports," "Travel and Transportation," "Home Life," "Population and Growth of Cities," "Protection of Life and Property," "Public Health and Sanitation." These units are followed in Grades IX and X by units on "Urban Life," "Rural Life," "Standards of Living," "Industrial Society," and "Social Amelioration." In the unit on rural life, for example, the topics considered are problems of rural life in America today, the relation of these problems to those of urban life, how the problems have developed, and how governments attempt the solution of these problems. In the unit "Social Amelioration" the topics are the position of the average man in society today, how he has come to have this status, and proposals for betterment through the ages. In order to provide assimilative material for pupils, the faculty has been forced to prepare it, for none was available. The material on amusements and sports is in print.<sup>1</sup> Other units are nearing the stage at which they may be printed, since they have been tried out successfully in the classroom.

In the upper secondary school the courses deal almost exclusively with governmental and economic problems. Units entitled "Government in Modern America," "How Our Political System Has Developed," "Securing the Consent of the Governed," "Local Government in Metropolitan Chicago," and "The United States in the

<sup>1</sup> Robert B. Weaver, *Amusements and Sports in American Life*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

Family of Nations" are illustrative. In addition to doing voluminous reading and engaging in discussions, pupils make the acquaintance of ward committeemen, serve as volunteer watchers on election day, listen to broadcasts which are concerned with governmental problems, and keep up a large bulletin board devoted to clippings which deal with the problems of government. The course entitled "Economic Society" contains units on such subjects as "Why People Work," "The Development of Our Economic System," "Vocations," "Savings," and "The Distribution of Income." The last unit considers such topics as variation in wealth and income, men and women in industry, unemployment, social legislation, trade-unions, collective bargaining, the Russian experiment, and the New Deal.

The attitude of suspended judgment is built up through the reading of sources, and, in our opinion, pupils leave the social sciences with an appreciation of the problems which face the American people, some understanding of how accurate information about them may be obtained, and a realization that they individually will be involved in reaching solutions. Discussions, needless to say, are not limited to the classroom.

#### INCREASES IN SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE

A second reason why schools do not fit for contemporary society is the vast increase and constant advancement in scientific knowledge. Research workers in historical geography, astrophysics, biochemistry, and mathematical economics, to mention only a few, have all contributed to knowledge. As scientific knowledge grows, applications of these sciences have been given to us through manufacturing and engineering, as in the radio, moving pictures, microphotographs, statistical scoring machines, and television. We use the applications of science, but we do not understand the basic principles of their operation. As knowledge grows, it has been inevitable that specialists are those who know more and more about less and less. This situation is to be expected and will continue. The time when one man could know everything there was to know has long since passed. Although a man cannot know everything that is going on in one field, boys and girls and most adults need broad pictures of life, not the fragments which are taught in the graduate courses in the

universities. Classification of knowledge is useful for the expert, but it is bewildering for an adolescent.

Science has so many applications that the school cannot teach them all, nor should it attempt to do so. Education consists rather in the development of broad understanding of areas of knowledge and an appreciation of the specialist's place which makes it possible to call on him when he is needed. The school should offer more functional science rather than straight botany, zoölogy, physics, or chemistry. This need requires a reorganization of the materials in science. A number of schools are attempting this reorganization by providing orientation courses which draw from several fields of science and omit material that does not help explain the environment in which we live. In an attempt to make the biological sciences more functional, the Commission on Human Relations of the Progressive Education Association has studied the problems that are of concern to young people and has issued a book, *Life and Growth*,<sup>1</sup> which cannot be overlooked by anyone seriously concerned with the reorganization of the science offerings in the secondary school. Another book with implications for those who wish to reorganize high-school science is *Science in General Education*,<sup>2</sup> published by the Commission on Secondary-School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR REORGANIZATION IN SCIENCE

In an attempt to make science more functional at the upper secondary-school level, where physics and chemistry have long resisted change, the instructors in Grades XI and XII have organized a two-year sequence in physical science, which draws material from geology, physics, chemistry, and astronomy. The course does not consist of nine weeks of each science but rather draws from any field at any time when the information is needed to explain phenomena having relationship to an understanding of the society in which we live.

<sup>1</sup> Alice V. Keliher, with the Commission on Human Relations, *Life and Growth*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938.

<sup>2</sup> *Science in General Education*. Report of the Committee on the Function of Science in General Education, Commission on Secondary-School Curriculum. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938.

While facts are taught, the methods of science are also taught and are of greater importance. For example, it is considered necessary to know something of the size and the motion of the stars in the universe, but it is not enough to accept this information from the teacher or textbook statement. Two other things are necessary: (1) an understanding of the procedures used by astronomers in reaching their decisions (this does not mean carrying out astronomical calculations) and (2) more than the knowledge that some stars approach us, some recede, and others have motions in other directions. This information should form part of a composite picture of the structure and motion of our universe and our appreciation of it. In order to understand the motions of stars, one must first secure from physics some knowledge of spectra, since the radial motion of stars with respect to the sun is determined by a study of spectra.

Perhaps another illustration is in order. Instruction in the course begins with a study of the earth on which we live. Its immediacy offers an excellent beginning; the material is descriptive and does not, at the outset, frighten nonmathematical students with computation. This study leads logically into the geological processes which are shaping the earth, including a study of the Dust Bowl, floods on the Mississippi and the Ohio, erosion, and soil control. Not only are the facts presented, but pupils learn *how* geologists have determined what forces or natural processes are responsible for topography as we know it today. The attempt is made to show these forces in relation to one another and thus to furnish an appreciation of the ever changing surface of the earth on which we live.

A serious attempt has been made to provide laboratory exercises which are experiences in thinking rather than a slavish following of cookbook recipes in a laboratory manual. As an illustration of what is meant may be cited an exercise in which the instructor brings to the laboratory small bottles containing a mixture of sand and sugar. Since the necessary information is possessed by the pupils, they are required only to apply what has been learned: sugar is soluble in water, and evaporation will remove the water. The number of pupils who quickly recover the sugar in the laboratory is large. The difficulty with such laboratory work is finding a sufficient number of suitable experiences.



## NEW WAYS OF LIFE

A third reason why the curriculum must be changed is that we live in new ways. In an earlier age there was no radio, there were no automobiles, nor was there a movie-house on every corner. Entertainment as well as work was found in the home. Now amusement is where we find it, and it is likely to be commercial. Life in an earlier age was much simpler; it was not so noisy, so nerve-wracking, so tense.

As an illustration of the new ways of life may be mentioned the emphasis in society on living and working together. This emphasis is due to our congested cities, with the great factories and the extensive subdivision of labor, and it is quite in contrast with the time when "rugged individualists" were necessary to conquer the continent. It has clear implications for methods in our schools: organized play, socialized class work, pupil-teacher co-operative planning rather than a taskmaster in the person of the teacher who hands out tasks and checks daily to see that the tasks are completed in approved fashion.

Another change in the way of life is our exposure to propaganda. Mass production means mass consumption. The latest breakfast food must have a large market if it is to prosper, so it employs the radio. Pressure groups seek mass action and attempt to damn those who oppose them with the cry of "Communist" or "Jew"—the technique used by Hitler with at least temporary success. The politician relies on the magic phrase, such as Wilson's "He kept us out of war." The school must give training in analyzing propaganda, as well as training in newspaper-reading because the newspaper is often an instrument for propaganda, particularly in certain areas. A short time ago the Judd Club, a group of high-school principals in suburbs adjacent to Chicago, made a study of newspaper-reading<sup>1</sup> and found that 62 per cent of the boys and 55 per cent of the girls read at least one newspaper daily and that about 69 per cent believed what they read in the paper. Need it be said again that pupils need training in how to read the newspaper? Encouragingly enough, while it is not difficult to provide, such training is efficacious.

<sup>1</sup> C. C. Harvey and Cecil F. Denton, "Use of Newspapers in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XLVI (March, 1938), 196-201.

Another new way of life is the increasing leisure. Time was when man worked from sunup to sundown—twelve or fourteen hours a day. The hours of labor dropped from twelve to ten to eight; soon the workday will be six hours. Pupils must be trained to use this leisure wisely. Training for participation in activities rather than spectatorship is an obligation of the school. Training a pupil to play in the band instead of listening to concerts or training him to do both is better than training him merely to be a passive listener. Training the pupil to take part in physical activities as well as to be a spectator, instead of being merely a spectator at our great sports spectacles, is also an obligation.

#### THE LEISURE ACTIVITIES OF YOUNG ADOLESCENTS

What do young people do in their leisure time? They read, engage in sports, listen to the radio, have "dates," and go to the movies. These activities account for much of their leisure time. The pupils who were studied in New York read almost entirely for recreation, chiefly magazines of mediocre quality, cheap fiction, and daily papers. They knew that Poe wrote "The Raven," that *Quentin Durward* describes life in feudal times, and that Cooper wrote about the Indians, but they read the *Saturday Evening Post*, *Liberty*, and *Reader's Digest*.<sup>1</sup> If they read any books, they restricted themselves to contemporary fiction. They listened to the radio, the boys for eleven and the girls for fifteen hours a week. Their favorite radio programs were Jack Benny, Lux Radio Theater, Fred Allen, and Eddie Cantor.<sup>2</sup> The March of Time ranked thirty-second; Edwin C. Hill, seventy-first; and the Town Meeting of the Air, eighty-fourth.<sup>3</sup> Need it be said that training in listening to the radio is necessary? Three-fourths of the New York pupils went to the movies on the average of once a week or oftener.<sup>4</sup> The rural pupils knew less than the urban about the good films, but they went just as often. Discrimination in reading, in listening to the radio, and in choosing moving pictures is not now being taught in the college-preparatory high school with its traditional mathematical-classical curriculum.

<sup>1</sup> F. T. Spaulding, *op. cit.*, pp. 43-44.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 46.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 29.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 47.

## TEACHING PUPILS TO READ AT MORE MATURE LEVELS

The following procedures are suggestive of those which may be used to prepare pupils more adequately in the areas which have been mentioned. If you believe that pupils should read better magazines, then a unit on periodicals may be taught in the English course. For several years such a unit has been taught in Grade X of the University High School, and we have evidence that pupils who have studied this unit read better magazines after the course than before and that their interest in the magazines of good quality does not diminish as they progress through school. We also have evidence that they read better magazines than pupils who have not had experience with the magazine unit. As yet we do not have evidence on their magazine-reading after they leave school, but we have reason to believe that it will be better than that which is usually found among adults.

The school may also teach discrimination in the use of the radio. A unit on listening to the radio has been placed in the English curriculum of the University High School. That unit is reinforced by the social-studies teachers, who recommend the better radio programs, such as the University of Chicago Round Table and the Town Meeting of the Air—and we have evidence that pupils listen to them. We do not as yet have evidence that our pupils will listen to better programs after they finish school, but we have high hopes.

Many schools are now teaching motion-picture appreciation. The "Study Guides" formerly provided by the National Council of Teachers of English help to develop discrimination in the selection of movies and, in a quiet way, will probably be more effective in boycotting unsatisfactory or salacious movies than the public cry of indignation raised by pressure groups.

In an attempt to develop maturity in the level of the books which are read, a number of schools, of which the University High School is one, keep records of their pupils' free reading. For evaluating free reading, an index of maturity level<sup>1</sup> of a large number of authors has been developed by teachers in schools taking part in the Eight Year Study sponsored by the Progressive Education Association.

<sup>1</sup> "Alphabetical List of One Thousand Fiction Authors Classified by Subject and Maturity Level." Chicago: Evaluation in the Eight Year Study, Progressive Education Association, University of Chicago, 1937.

This index enables one to say whether pupils are reading at the juvenile, the intermediate, or the adult level. Typically, pupils in Grade VII read at the juvenile level, or Level 1. In several schools the median level of free reading in the senior high school is Level 4. Level 6 is high-grade adult reading. Many pupils have reached Levels 5 and 6 in Grades XI and XII. Evidence is not yet available to determine whether such pupils, when out of school, will read principally adult books, both fiction and nonfiction, but there is every reason to believe that they will do so. We have discouraging evidence that the intensive teaching of the classics, so frequently the basis of high-school courses in literature, does not result in adult reading habits by out-of-school pupils.

#### REMEDIAL READING

Another way in which schools are making pupils more nearly adult is by furnishing remedial reading to those who need it. In the New York survey, for example, 10 per cent of the high-school Seniors scored below the eighth-grade reading standard.<sup>1</sup> Nor is there any reason to believe that New York as a state need be ashamed of the record.

Conscientious school administrators have incorporated remedial reading as part of the curriculum. An encouraging thing about remedial reading is that improvement follows the inauguration of the process almost inevitably. Every school should employ remedial reading for its seriously retarded pupils no matter how good or how poor the average reading scores are. In fact, there is reason to believe that the better the instruction in reading has been and the higher the average grade score is, the greater will be the range of reading ability present, and the greater will be the necessity for furnishing help to pupils who are two or more grades below their fellows. In University High School we find that, although our pupils are from two to three grades above the standards set on published tests, those pupils who are seriously below their fellows, even though they may be at grade level, can be helped materially by a competent teacher of remedial reading.

<sup>1</sup> F. T. Spaulding, *op. cit.*, p. 41.

## THE PLACE OF MATHEMATICS

Perhaps the reader may wonder why mathematics has not been included in a brief implementation of general education. It should be; but, as it is at present organized, principally elementary algebra and plane geometry, it has little to contribute. Mathematics at the high-school level is in serious need of reorganization to make it functional as a method of thinking rather than a series of interesting mental gymnastics. The reorganization of mathematics around such concepts as "Proof and Generalization," "The Interpretation of Data," "The Story of Mathematics," and "Approximation," without losing sight of operational procedure, is, it is to be hoped, imminent. The publication of *Mathematics in General Education* in 1940 should do much to hasten this reorganization.

## CORRELATION

One final word: the relations between the various subject-matter fields must be pointed out to the pupils if these relations are to be seen. This consciously achieved relationship may be called correlation. It may be accomplished by developing the relations in various fields at the same time or consecutively.

As an illustration of the former method may be mentioned the teaching in social studies of a unit on the growth of population at the same time that a unit in English entitled "The Immigrant in American Literature" holds the center of attention. While the story of the development of population and the westward expansion in the United States is being portrayed, poetry, biographies, dramas, and novels dealing with the immigrant are being read. The teachers of English and social science know what is being done in the other field by means of conference and visitation, and the pupil makes an integration of the material which he receives through more than one avenue.

As an illustration of consecutive correlation or reinforcement may be cited the teaching of "How To Read a Newspaper" in English in Grade IX, which is used and reinforced by the teachers of tenth-grade social science. This procedure again requires conferences of instructors that all concerned may know what is being taught by others and may use it.

One final caution: correlation just to have correlation and be up to date is futile. There must be real and vital relations between the materials, and these must be of interest to adolescents or they will be meaningless. To study Russian music, Russian history, and Russian literature in an American high school, as has been done, is likely to result only in distaste for things Russian without sensitizing pupils to problems which confront Americans.

At the University High School the faculty feels that a vital reorganization of general education within the framework of the present subject-matter departments can be achieved. It would include English, social studies, fine arts, practical arts, and mathematics of the kind mentioned, and it would include correlation as a method of teaching whenever or wherever it has meaning.



## THREE ERRORS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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THIS article begins with the assumption that the American conception of education as the main function, as well as the main support, of democracy is taken for granted. The problem of what is wrong with American education today is, therefore, to indicate what errors in practice tend to obstruct the realization of this conception rather than to worry about minor problems that are consequences of the original errors. There seem to be three such important errors: the failure to attempt the fundamental *social* objective of democratic education, the failure to distinguish between teaching and learning, and the failure to attain democracy and universality in the interests served.

### FAILURE TO ATTEMPT SOCIAL OBJECTIVE OF DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION

In determining the fundamental objectives in American education, one must start with a concrete concept of democracy. The basis of democracy might be couched in the following philosophical assumption: That individual profits most who forgets himself and works for the development of the group; that group profits most which forgets itself and works for the development of the individuals of whom it is composed. This mutual interest provides the dynamic of democracy. The age-old conflict between the group and the individual once appeared irreconcilable because each party to the conflict believed that its well-being depended only on the elimination or the humiliation of the other. Democracy as a social program strives to resolve the conflict in such a way that there may be, at the same time and in peace, individuals free to grow and the advantage of group direction. In the energized individual lies the *source* of human progress; in the democratized group lie the *means* of putting progress into effect. Negatively, democracy attempts to avoid, on one hand, sterile institutionalization of the group and, on the other, ineffective

and unintelligent allegiance, as well as the stalemate that results from the conflict of two opposed, selfish ideals of progress. Democracy is, therefore, not merely another set of rules to regulate the conflict between group and individual but a plan to use each party as a complement of the other in such a way as to insure social and individual weal as a goal. The philosophical assumption given above seems to set the role that each is to play.

We have always been vaguely aware that both *individual* and *social* elements must be developed by education, but a failure to comprehend the content of these terms as defined above has led to hopeless confusion. One is sure, for example, that one must learn about one's rights, but one hears little about one's obligations. One is sure that one should develop individual prowess but gets little help or encouragement in developing socially helpful attitudes and habits. When pupils or parents are asked why children go to school, the reply invariably is that they go for their individual advancement; only a great deal of coaxing will bring forth a grudging, vague, conventional agreement that going to school may have something to do with the continuance and the successful functioning of the democratic program. In such a situation the school suffers by loss of contact with a large sector of democratic living, and democracy suffers the loss of socially-minded citizens. Both the individual and the social aspects of democracy must be included in the school program, and both need to be understood concurrently in their proper settings. The current problems of education—the handling of controversial topics, the feasibility of social planning, the democratization of school procedure, the method of inculcating intelligent political attitudes, the willingness of the public to finance education, and the like—all these will be inadequately solved unless educators get clearly in mind the proper bearing of individual and social objectives. The school as a social institution must be keenly interested in the development of *individual* prowess; the individuals, however, should develop equally effective *social* attitudes and virtues. Educators will have concrete opportunity to rue their error in this situation in the near future when over half the voters will have no children in the schools and will be loath to support an institution that has no clearly defined social program.

## FAILURE TO DISTINGUISH TEACHING AND LEARNING

The second error is the assumption in practice that teaching rather than learning is the primary school activity. Specific evidence that this view is usual lies in the fact, for example, that "supervision" is generally defined as the improvement of *teaching*. This conception of supervision has led to a formidable literature on approved techniques, devices, mannerisms, check lists, rating charts, and the like, worked out by the armchair method and rarely, if ever, developed from experimental data derived from measurement of desirable improvement in the *learning of pupils*.

The complete confusion in the attempts to predict teaching success or to evaluate a teacher's work is evidence that most of the criteria of good teaching are sheer speculative assumptions; such they are because they are based on consideration of teaching in the abstract rather than on teaching at work making changes in children. Teachers' attitudes toward supervision are unfavorable because they recognize its futility in classroom experiences. Only when supervisor and teacher both study the learning as it takes place before their eyes and then work together to make it more effective is improvement attained.

Another example from many is the practice of grouping pupils arbitrarily on bases that involve only a small sector of individual differences—a sector that generally includes no more than the differences in willingness of pupils to be enthusiastic over the school offering at the time. Widespread acceptance of such procedure came because it made *teaching* easier. Only in the relatively few schools in which the faculty persisted in worrying about the effects on the learners is there a realization that such grouping does not necessarily improve learning. In general educators are beginning to realize that changes in teaching do not automatically result in better learning.

Many other examples could be given to prove that schools are regarded as places where teachers teach instead of places where pupils learn. This obsession with teaching as an activity occurring *in vacuo* lies at the bottom of many of the school's difficulties. For example, democratic supervision and creative supervision are dismal farces when the supervisor directs his attention to the teacher's activities. Curricular revisions to meet the real needs and all the

needs of all the children result merely in a juggling of courses already offered (so-called "general" curriculums), or in the use of "modified" and therefore emasculated courses, or in the chasing of pupils from one course to another until they finally find something so easy that they do it complacently regardless of its value. A formidable machinery of credits, arbitrary course prescriptions, and marking practices grows out of teachers' meetings. Casual observation of children's interests and needs would have avoided such grotesqueries as formal and artificial student-government systems when natural and educative opportunities for participation in necessary school activities are ignored. Only total indifference to the learners will explain our inexcusable unconcern with the fate of our product once it leaves us (we mention only such products as chance to enhance our reputation as teachers). Guidance is perfunctory and is avoided by teachers as much as possible. Teachers in service do not hesitate to demand that they teach courses in which they are specially prepared or in which they may cultivate their hobbies. The absurd doctrine known as "indirect teaching" grew up merely because it enabled schools to avoid difficult or dangerous topics.

The child-centered school and other attempts to escape from this condition are making a serious mistake in overlooking the fact that they not only must suggest another method but must displace an institutionalized mind-set. In a democracy it is peculiarly harmful if the chief instrument in developing democracy forgets its primary concern with its people, turns its attention inward upon itself, and presents a spectacular example of the very kind of institutionalized group behavior that democracy is designed to avoid. The long endurance of this institutionalized mind-set and the present gigantic size of the institution conspire to make it very difficult to transform teaching into an unrelenting attention to the needs, the nature, and the problems of the learners. Neither learning nor democracy, however, will make advances unless such a transformation takes place.

#### FAILURE TO ATTAIN DEMOCRACY IN INTERESTS SERVED

In the third place, education is too selective. Perhaps, the very size and complexity of the task keep us from ever seeing American education as a whole, or perhaps the vague definitions of democracy

may be at fault. "Selection" is used here to indicate the tendency to attack education in piecemeal fashion. The two errors discussed above are examples of such a selective process.

The unwillingness of secondary education to make real efforts to serve all its potential citizens is another case in point. Once the high schools were compelled to invite the absent ones to join them, the newcomers were expected to use the same educational experience that had been arranged for the select few who had preceded them, or halfhearted attempts were made to tinker with existing school materials. In building courses for the so-called "nonacademic pupils," school men have never been willing to use even a small fraction of the time, energy, and thought that have been expended on the academic courses.

During the whole history of American education another entire phase of life—the consumer phase—has been consistently neglected. Chemistry, for example, has always been taught as if every pupil were to become a chemist, even in face of the obvious facts that all pupils in the usual public-school chemistry classes will not be chemists and that the pressing current problem is that of *use* not that of *production*. Now that the schools are forced again to extend the scope of their offerings by adding courses in consumer education, they illustrate again the inability to see a field whole. The current consumer-education courses are narrowly conceived, *caveat emptor* materials wherein consumption is regarded merely as the purchase of necessities and the pupil is frightened into limiting his use of products and opportunities. Whether consumption is studied from the economic or the cultural standpoint, it is obvious that the objective should be an intelligent *expansion* of consumption and that such expansion should specifically include the increased use of the social values of democracy; of natural beauty; of leisure-time hobbies; of art, music, literature, and the like, which receive no consideration in consumer-education courses as such. Finally, the selective process cuts off the interrelations between society and education by insisting that education is a part-time job ending at a certain age, that education is a cold-storage rather than a living process. Our attempts at adult education, futile and sporadic as compared with attempts in Scandinavian countries, are results of such a limited conception of

education. Other examples can be cited to show that making education really democratic in spirit and in fact is a problem far more complicated than that of housing millions of pupils in some kind of school. An institution that forgets itself and honestly and energetically concerns itself solely with the needs of individuals would not overlook so many of its obvious obligations.

This article may be summed up by returning to the original thesis, that education in a democracy is different from education in other social forms, not merely in amount, but also in kind. The sort of haphazard, halfhearted attempts to form an American system of education, which is our history of education, the ridiculous over-enthusiasm for new movements, the sporadic imitations of schools in other countries are consequences of the basic failure to go the whole way in interpreting education as an integral part of the process of building a democratic society, and in evaluating methods, machinery, and product in the light of the social needs of our democracy.



## A SECTIONING PROGRAM USING LARGE CLASSES

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THE English and the social-science departments of the Burlington High School use a sectioning program which has as its salient features: (1) a top or "A" section, usually of sixty to seventy pupils; (2) a "B+" or drive section, usually of twenty-five pupils; (3) a "B-" or ordinary section, usually of thirty-eight pupils; and (4) a "C" or elemental section, usually of twenty pupils. Each level of English and social science is concentrated in some two of the six periods of the day to allow transfer of pupils among these sections. No correlation is involved. Three years each of English and social science are required of all pupils.

### REASONING BEHIND THE PROGRAM

Before a further description of the organization is attempted, there ought to be given the reasoning behind this program, which was established in 1936 by Ray H. Bracewell, then principal of the high school and now superintendent of schools of Burlington.

The first reason is that of economy of teaching procedure. This reason applies particularly to Section A. We gather together in one class a large number of pupils to do those things which many pupils can do together. This plan leads to better teaching in that, while one teacher is the center of the teaching process, the other or assistant teacher can be doing those things with the individual pupil which the first teacher would never have time to do. If there is a time when students of adequate ability should study by themselves without constant teacher guidance, if there is a place for students to work from study guides, if there is a place where students can forget the teacher and work on individual problems, why should not the plan be operated with sixty or seventy pupils as well as the typical thirty-five? If one teacher is placed in charge of the larger class, then

a teacher is released to carry on individual diagnosis of problems and to suggest or direct procedures with small groups.

The second major line of reasoning here is an interest in the development of freedom of study: a growing-away on the part of the pupil from dependence on the teacher. Too many of our people are exposed to freedom without being prepared to live in it. As a means of developing the power to live in freedom, the group of pupils who are more mature and better prepared to exercise initiative ought to be taught differently from the others. However, even to these top, or Section A, pupils we are not saying, "You people should have freedom; here it is; do what you want with it." The opportunity for freedom must go along with a desire for freedom and the ability to exercise it wisely. Pupils who complete a minimum piece of work can proceed to "free work." Some of these pupils will come to appreciate this type of work, and their directed work may be made less and less in amount. For others the directed work will have to be made greater and greater. A fundamental of the thinking behind the present organization is that groups have varying abilities in the proper exercise of freedom but that the growth in independence from the teacher remains a primary objective for those pupils who can grow in that way.

To some extent the usual philosophy of sectioning applies here also. This reasoning says that a group will be composed of pupils who may do the things that they are able to do. No group will be retarded by a laggard group, and the laggards will not fade out of sight in contrast with others. However, this aim is not the main support of the Burlington program since, although there are four types of classes in the program, it is defensible to say that only two levels of intellectual ability are represented.

#### MECHANICAL FEATURES

Before the program is described, two mechanical features ought to be made clear. The first concerns the time arrangement. The Burlington High School is a senior high school and has six one-hour periods. All English classes of a certain level are concentrated in two

of the six periods. The same is true for social science, as is shown below:

	<i>English</i>	<i>Social Science</i>
Sophomores . . . .	First or fourth period	Second or fifth period
Juniors . . . . .	Second or fifth period	Third or sixth period
Seniors . . . . .	Third or sixth period	First or fourth period

A Sophomore's program might be: first period, English; second period, geometry; third period, woodworking; fourth period, gymnasium and study combination; fifth period, social science; and sixth period, biology. Thus, in each period all sections in English and in social science of that particular year may be found. This arrangement makes possible transfer from section to section and, for the sake of ease in program-making, prevents too great a drain on available time by not concentrating the same level of English or social science in any one period.

The second mechanical detail concerns the arrangement of rooms for the large "A" sections. The Burlington High School formerly had study halls seating several hundred pupils. One of these was divided into three rooms: at one end a large room, seating ninety-five pupils, for social-science classes; at the other end a large room, seating ninety-nine pupils, for English; between these two and connected with both, a smaller room used for a branch library. Both departments use the branch library, in which are deposited books called for from the main library.

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE SECTIONS

A description of the sections in this program must start with Section A. We will consider English first. Section A, composed of from sixty to seventy pupils, reads classics, writes themes, does outside reading, and uses a textbook. Enriched study methods are used, but the main emphasis is on development of freedom in study. This section makes frequent use of the branch library. Library trucks are provided to get books to the pupils as quickly as possible. The membership in Section A is not arbitrarily limited. On an over-all basis, this section comprises 30-35 per cent of the total enrolment in any one period. The faculty believes that a larger proportion of Seniors

than of Sophomores have qualified for membership in Section A. The section is definitely assigned to a teacher and an assistant, who is a teacher with regular status. These two persons are in charge of the entire group. A regular classroom is also assigned to Section A, in which small groups may give reports, discuss current events, engage in discussion, or plan a small-group activity while the rest of the class remains in the large room. In English two weeks in every six are devoted to composition, and the teacher and the assistant then split the class into two theme sections.

Section B+ is composed of pupils who have Section A potentialities but who cannot do Section A work because of lack of proper study habits or lack of interest. Section B+ is auxiliary to Section A. There is a great deal of transfer between these two sections. The teacher of Section B+ needs patience and resourcefulness. An effort is made to keep the enrolment at twenty-five. The fact that it is an offshoot of Section A indicates that its course of study approximates that of Section A.

Section B- more nearly resembles the traditional heterogeneous class than any other section of the Burlington organization. The size of this section ranges around thirty-eight. This section is composed of all pupils except those who can do enriched work and free work and those who have the ability to do only the barest elemental work. The danger here is that the teacher will find routine teaching methods more easily applicable than in any other section. This group does not read the same classics or necessarily do the same textbook work as Section A.

Section C usually enrolls twenty pupils and is composed of those not going on to college and of pupils whose abilities demand that only the barest elemental work be given them.

The sections in the social sciences can be defined the same as those in English save that in Section A the teachers stress the development of two powers: (1) the development of comprehensive thought and (2) the development not only of free or appreciative reading but also of critical and analytical reading.

A combination of diagnostic and prognostic measures is used to fix the section to which a pupil is to be assigned at the beginning of a semester. In the case of a pupil who was in the high school the pre-

ceding semester, the judgment of his last teacher in the department carries most weight.

The effect of this program on the individual pupil can be clarified somewhat by considering a hypothetical case. Pupil X may have been assigned to Section B— in social science. After four or five weeks in which this pupil shows that he is consistently able to do the work of the section with ease, the class teacher transfers him to Section A. In that section Pupil X gets along reasonably well, but it soon becomes apparent that some defect in his study habits holds him back. The teacher of Section A then transfers him to Section B+, which is an auxiliary to Section A. In this section special efforts are made to correct the lack in his study habits, and, assuming that these efforts are successful, he is soon sent back to Section A, where he finishes out the semester or year. This hypothetical case involves more transfer than is usually found in our experience with the program, but it is entirely justified under the philosophy of the plan.

#### EVALUATION OF THE PROGRAM

As was previously mentioned, this organization was introduced by Ray H. Bracewell two years before he became superintendent of schools. The writer became principal succeeding Mr. Bracewell in January, 1938. Inevitably there was a plateau period in the progress of experimentation and discussion among the staff on the development of the organization.

Present plans call for an extensive evaluation project in connection with the program next year. There is at present little objective evidence to cite. Most of what there is lies in the field of English. Burlington High School graduates who have been measured by the entering examinations for college Freshmen in the Iowa Colleges Conference on English have, over the four-year period, been above the state median. There are seven parts to this test. On the parts dealing with vocabulary and reading comprehension, Burlington High School graduates have been outstanding. Up to the present there seems good reason to say that the existing organization has not hampered the effectiveness of the teaching of grammar and sentence structure and has made steps toward development of wider reading ability. There are no similar tests in social science. In an effort to

evaluate, first, the assignment of pupils to sections and, second, adaptation of teaching procedure to the individual pupils, the American Council Economics Test was administered to Senior pupils in social science before they began their work in economics in the spring semester of 1939. A correlation study was made of these results with the teachers' final evaluation of the pupils. It was found that there were nearly perfect rank-order correlations in Sections C, B-, and B+. Section A showed a correlation above .70, which is significant although not as great as those of the other sections. The question may be raised whether the test covered all the objectives of the sectioning program as described, and the doubt would be conceded. There is no other objective evidence.

The faculty and the administration believe that Sections C and B- are accomplishing their objectives completely and are well adjusted. The "B+" sections have accomplished their purpose, but an interesting problem developed in connection with them. It will be remembered that Section B+ was intended for pupils who were capable of doing Section A work but who were not doing work of that caliber because of lack of proper study methods or lack of interest. It was noted that the tendency was growing to concentrate discipline cases in Section B+. The result was, in some instances, that the effectiveness of this section as an auxiliary to Section A was hampered. The realization of this fact has halted the tendency to assign pure discipline or maladjustment cases to Section B+.

Section A was the slowest section to attain adjustment. This statement does not mean that it was the least satisfactory of the four sections since it had the hardest job to do; it was the greatest departure from ordinary procedure. In this section the teaching hurdles described below apply most pointedly.

#### HURDLES TO BE OVERCOME

The hurdles to be overcome are those which a faculty would be expected to meet in following such a program. The first of these hurdles is the natural temptation which would come to any teacher who had a class of sixty good students placed before him. Too many teachers have been trained to drive pupils to their limit. In fact, success as a teacher has too often been measured by the ability to



carry on an excellent recitation and an ability to drive pupils to maximum accomplishments as evidenced by school examinations or other forms of school tests. What many teachers like to do is to work out the minimum requirements and other materials for the better pupils for each year's work and then use all their skills to accomplish as much as can be done in bringing all pupils to their maximum success. It is hard to come into a class made up of students selected for their ability to work and their readiness to work, to look over this marvelous field of teaching material, and not immediately marshal all forces with the objective of a major drive toward these goals which have been built up over a long period of years. This procedure does not recognize the need for the school to give the pupil a chance to grow gradually to the place where he can exercise freedom wisely. What ought to be done in these sections is for the teacher to retreat intelligently from the immediate direction of pupil activities, all the time watching to see that every such retreat on his part is followed by an advance in the pupil's initiative. Then, if the pupil does not follow, the teacher must advance with required work, a little later giving the pupil another opportunity. That is, the teacher in Section A who says, "Let there be freedom," and does nothing about it himself will not be acting wisely. The faculty itself has named this difficulty as a very high hurdle to get over. The problem to be overcome can be designated as the "page-by-page method of teaching."

Second, this system calls for flexibility of transfer between sections. In the theory behind the organization it is presumably possible for a pupil to transfer at any time. Once again it must be said that the easiest thing to do is to let class organizations remain as they are until the end of the semester and then make all changes. The writer believes that it is not necessary for transfers to be made only at the semester change. The groups presuppose a greater success in teaching. When a pupil is taken from one group and placed in another, we are setting in motion a chain of events which will make less likely his return, but things do happen to pupils of a character which can imply the necessity of reassignment to another group. The fact that one pupil has read a certain classic while another pupil has experienced a different classic should be no more

compelling in its effect than the fact that one pupil has come from one home while another has experienced a different home situation. If a pupil in the social sciences has done only a routine piece of work in the first six weeks, does that make it impossible for him to do an enriched piece of study in the last part of the semester, assuming that a change has taken place in him? In other words, if we rigidly insist that transfers may be made only at the semester's end, then we are not saying that the change in the pupil is the determining factor in our sectioning. The more inflexible the transfer, the more the teachability of the pupil is being supplanted by routine.

The final hurdle which our faculty reports, and one to which we have given a great deal of time, is the proper use of the assistant teacher in the large sections. The assistant ought to do more than mere routine tasks. The assistant ought to do individual work when the teacher has the entire group and to assume charge of a section when the group is split. To use the assistant in any other way is to say that Section A is a superclass presided over by a teacher using exclusively large-group methods, namely, the lecture, supervised study, routine work, and detailed objective tests, with an assistant to do the drab work. The proper use of the assistant in Section A classes will prevent the master teacher from using lectures excessively in those classes.

## GUIDE TO THE LITERATURE ON THE BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA<sup>1</sup>

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THIS guide has been prepared to meet the needs of those interested in the literature on the Boy Scouts of America. In each odd-numbered year the national organization has been issuing, in the December number of the *Scout Administrator*, a "Literature Number" virtually confined to the organization's own publications.<sup>2</sup> In the thirty years since the Boy Scouts of America started, a vast literature on the subject has been accumulating. Practically every magazine and newspaper has had articles on scouting, while numerous books and pamphlets on it have appeared.

### BIBLIOGRAPHIES

There are no satisfactory bibliographies covering the general field of scouting. As mentioned above, the "Literature Number" of the *Scout Administrator* lists publications of the National Council. Bibliographies on special fields, however, appear in the following publications.

BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA. *Bibliography of Studies on Scouting*. New York: Boy Scouts of America, 1938. Pp. 25. (Mimeographed copies obtainable from the Research Service, Boy Scouts of America, 2 Park Avenue, New York City.)

<sup>1</sup> One of a series of guides to the professional literature of various educational fields initiated by Professor Alexander and worked out in collaboration with his students. A guide is usually published in a periodical covering its field. A complete list, including places of publication, for the guides published, completed but unpublished, under way, or contemplated can be secured from Professor Carter Alexander at the address shown above.

<sup>2</sup> The last such number was issued in 1937. Henceforth the "Literature Number" will appear in the *Local Council Exchange*, but the month has not yet been selected.

BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA. *Scouting Personnel*. New York: Boy Scouts of America, 1937. Pp. 182.

WYLAND, RAY O. *Scouting in the Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 631. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. viii+200.

Many of the studies included in the *Bibliography of Studies on Scouting* contain additional references to literature pertaining to the field of scouting.

#### GOVERNMENT AGENCIES AND PUBLICATIONS

The United States Government Printing Office has printed the *Annual Report of Boy Scouts of America* since 1921.<sup>1</sup> This publication contains each year a complete record of the Scout movement for the year covered, including financial statement, statistical indices and charts, detailed reports concerning the entire nation, and the status of all activities in the Boy Scout program.

#### HISTORY

The official history, the latest and the most comprehensive, is: MURRAY, WILLIAM D. *History of the Boy Scouts of America*. New York: Boy Scouts of America, 1937. Pp. viii+574.

Some brief histories of the Boy Scout movement, mainly Masters' theses, may be located through the *Bibliography of Studies on Scouting*.

#### INDEX HEADINGS AND INDEXES

In library indexes the principal headings that refer to the Boy Scouts of America are "Boy Scouts" and "Scouting." The following indexes contain references on this subject under these headings: *Agricultural Index* (1916 to date), *Art Index* (1929 to date), *Bibliographic Index* (1938 to date), *Book Review Digest* (1905 to date), *Education Index* (1929 to date), *Industrial Arts Index* (1913 to date), *International Index to Periodicals* (1920 to date), *New York Times Index* (1913 to date), *Public Affairs Information Service* (1915 to date), and *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* (1900 to date).

<sup>1</sup> From 1912 to 1921 the *Annual Report* was published by the National Council.

## LIST OF NAMES

The *Annual Report* (see section on "Government Agencies and Publications") usually gives for some years past the Silver Beaver Awards by regions. For the current year it gives: members, officers, and committees; membership of the National Council, both honorary and local council representatives, the latter by regions; members-at-large; national merit badge counselors; and executive officers and staff members of the National Council.

## NEWS NOTES

News notes appear in practically all the periodical publications of the National Council. Many local councils and regional offices issue bulletins containing news on current events. Sources outside the movement are newspapers everywhere in the United States and periodicals of various sorts.

## PERIODICALS

The periodicals devoted exclusively to the Boy Scouts of America are those listed below. They are published regularly by the National Council, Boy Scouts of America, 2 Park Avenue, New York City. None of these publications is indexed in the standard library indexes for periodicals. At present three of them have their own indexes at the end of each volume as indicated in the detailed notes on the periodicals below. For pertinent references in other magazines, see section on "Index Headings and Indexes" in this guide.

*Boys' Life* (1911 to date, monthly). A periodical for all boys of scout age, providing wholesome stories and other material of interest and educational value which will stimulate ambition and give help in character development of boys. All stories and material are in harmony with the principles of scouting laid down in the Scout Oath and Law. *Boys' Life* has regular departments devoted to the Boy Scout program and activities and particularly the various phases of woodcraft and camping and outdoor life generally.

*Bulletins of the Chief Scout Executive* (1923 to date). These bulletins are published at intervals to give the executives important current developments, information, policies, and other urgent material vital to the Scout movement.

- Cub Leaders' Round Table* (1933 to date, monthly except August). A magazine to assist Cub leaders by offering suggestions for den and pack meetings, advancement program, handicraft projects, reading materials, backyard camping, family outings, etc. An index is published in the December issue.
- Health and Safety* (1936 to date, published bimonthly). A magazine containing material related to health and safety, including news notes, safety regulations, and other items of interest in this field for the use of health and safety committees.
- Local Council Exchange* (published as the *Scout Administrator* from February, 1935, to May, 1938. Published bimonthly except every other year, when bimonthly except the July number). A magazine designed as a medium of exchange of ideas among local councils, particularly ideas relating to successful methods of promoting and operating scouting and cubbing locally and problems affecting the local council. An annual index is published in the December issue.
- Lone Scout* (1927 to date, monthly). A publication to aid Lone Scouts in catching the spirit of scouting and to help them in their advancement program and in their many scout problems. Designed particularly to assist boys located on farms, in rural villages, and in country towns.
- National Sea Scout Log* (published as the *National Sea Scout News Bulletin*, 1927 to 1936. Bimonthly except August). A publication for Sea Scout leaders, containing news notes, program materials, and other items of interest to those in this part of the Scout movement.
- Rover Record* (1935 to date, published bimonthly). A publication devoted to Rover activities for older scouts.
- Scout Executive* (1920 to date. At present published monthly except May, July, and August). Prior to 1935 this publication was devoted primarily to material intended to aid Scout executives in meeting council problems. Since 1935 this function has been taken over by the *Scout Administrator*, now the *Local Council Exchange*. The present *Scout Executive* is devoted principally to the interests of the professional staff in scouting, mainly news notes, changes in staff, vital statistics, and material of a personal character.
- Scouting* (1913 to date, monthly except that July and August issues are combined). A magazine to help all registered scouters and others engaged or interested in scouting in a uniform interpretation of the Scout movement and its policies, and to make most effective their efforts in behalf of boys through the movement. Contains inspirational articles, articles on program material, handicrafts and hobbies, outdoor activities, and projects for troops and patrols. An annual index is published in the December issue.



## PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The Scout Executives' Alliance, through a contribution from each member, provides a voluntary fraternal insurance benefit of thirty-five hundred dollars on the death of a member. A retirement plan has recently gone into effect for professional employees, and, further, a group-insurance plan is now effective for both professional and nonprofessional employees.

## REFERENCE BOOKS

Several reference books deal with specific phases of the Scout movement. The *Constitution and By-laws of the Boy Scouts of America* is the authoritative document on all phases of the movement. For program material see the *Handbook for Boys* and the *Handbook for Scoutmasters*. The book by William D. Murray listed under the heading of "History" is a good reference. The "Literature Number" of the *Scout Administrator*<sup>1</sup> for December, 1937, lists many other reference books in addition to those mentioned above.

## RESEARCHES AND STATISTICS

The best single list of researches is the *Bibliography of Studies on Scouting* (given under "Bibliographies" in this guide), which covers important studies made up to the end of 1938. For later researches the United States Office of Education's annual *Bibliography of Research Studies in Education* includes a heading on "Boy Scouts." The Statistical Service of the National Council carries on research in trends according to indices and other statistical devices used to analyze changes and causal factors.

The best sources of statistics on the Boy Scout movement are the various *Annual Reports*. These are detailed for the local councils and the regional and national summaries.

<sup>1</sup> Now called the *Local Council Exchange*.

## OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH: SOME SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

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INVESTIGATIONS of out-of-school youth that were conducted as an integral part of the vocational surveys of four cities in Iowa, ranging in population from approximately twenty-five thousand to eighty thousand, reveal some significant findings. These findings should be of interest to school administrators who are attempting to reorganize their school programs to fit the needs of youth and of the community.

### YOUTHS INCLUDED IN THE SURVEYS

These surveys included 2,545 youths (1,273 males and 1,272 females) in the age group of 16-24, inclusive. Although this age group was selected somewhat arbitrarily, some justification for the selection is found in the fact that during this period most young persons discontinue their education and enter, or at least attempt to enter, gainful employment.

These youths represented a fairly accurate sampling of all young people in this age range in the several communities. The median age of the cases included in the study was 20.32 years. Ninety-nine per cent were of the white race. Approximately two-thirds were single, one-third married, and less than 1 per cent were separated or divorced. All these youths, except about 6 per cent who lived in the open country, were residents of the four urban areas.

### EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUNDS

*Highest grade completed.*—The American democratic philosophy of education has committed us to the principle of providing an education at public expense for every youth. The extent to which this commitment has been fulfilled is indicated by the following data: Of the youths included in this study, 61 per cent had been graduated

from high school, 4.2 per cent returned to high school for post-graduate work, and only 8.1 per cent entered college.

Of the eighty-one youths in each thousand included in the study who entered college, fifty-one remained in college for one year only, sixteen for two years, and six for three years. Seven were graduated from college, and one continued his education beyond the fourth year. Thirty-nine out of each hundred youths included in this study failed to enter Grade XII, twenty-two out of each hundred failed to enter the senior high school, and one out of each hundred failed to enter the junior high school.

*Reasons for leaving school.*—Although youths give many reasons for discontinuing their education, the President's Advisory Committee on Education reports that there are two major causes, one of which is economic and the other curricular.<sup>1</sup> The economic cause consists in poverty at home: pupils drop out of school in order to go to work, or they stay at home without work because they do not have clothing, books, or transportation necessary to go to school. The curricular causes consist simply in the failure of the school to provide a course of study which retains the interest of the pupil or which appeals to him as useful or appropriate. (The reasons given by the youths surveyed in the present study for discontinuing their education, omitting the pupils who were graduated and those who did not answer the question, were as follows: to go to work, 34.7 per cent; finances, 23.4 per cent; illness, 11.9 per cent; needed at home, 11.9 per cent; dislike for school, 7.2 per cent; trouble in school, 5.7 per cent; to get married, 1.6 per cent; other reasons, 3.6 per cent.)

*Vocational training since leaving school.*—Because these youths had discontinued their education in the public schools and colleges, it might be assumed that they had no further interest in education. However, such was not the case. (Slightly more than 28 per cent of these young people, 715 in number, enrolled in correspondence and resident vocational courses after leaving school.)

Since it was necessary for these youths to expend both time and money to secure vocational training, it is evident that they were serious in their desire for such training. Of those who enrolled in

<sup>1</sup> Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*, p. 98. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

vocational courses, 35.5 per cent attended business colleges, 25.6 per cent attended evening schools, 14.7 per cent took correspondence and extension courses, 8.7 per cent apprenticeship courses, and 15.5 per cent enrolled in vocational courses in other specialized schools.

#### EMPLOYMENT STATUS

*Extent of employment.*—The data presented in the preceding paragraphs have given a picture of the youths included in the study and of their educational background. In light of these facts it will be interesting to explore their occupational lives since they discontinued their formal education. On the day the survey was conducted, approximately a half (49.1 per cent) of these youths were engaged in full-time employment, 15.9 per cent in part-time employment, 11.3 per cent worked occasionally, 23.2 per cent were not engaged in any type of employment, and 0.5 per cent failed to report their employment status.

A further study showed that, of the total number of youths who were gainfully employed full time, part time, or occasionally, approximately 25 per cent were employed at home and 75 per cent away from home. Eighty-seven per cent of the employed youths received remuneration for their work.

*Number of jobs or positions held.*—When data were collected concerning the number of jobs or positions held, work experience of a duration of one month or more was taken as a standard. In terms of this standard it was found that 43 youths had never been employed and 209 had had insufficient work experience to qualify. One hundred and seventy-eight cases failed to supply data on the number of jobs or positions held.

Although these youths had been out of school comparatively short periods of time, the 2,115 individuals who had had sufficient work experience to qualify had held a total of 4,870 jobs. The number of jobs in individual cases varied from one to more than ten, and the average for the group was 2.3 jobs. Eight hundred and twenty-five of these youths had held but one job; 1,290, two or more jobs; 592, three or more jobs; 291, four or more jobs; 172, five or more jobs; 118, six or more jobs; 93, seven or more jobs; 78, eight or more jobs; 66, nine or more jobs; and 56, ten or more jobs.

*Period of unemployment.*—A study of the unemployment status of these youths, in terms of the period of unemployment since leaving school or since holding the last regular position of at least one month's duration, reveals that 389 youths had not been regularly employed since leaving school and that 677 youths had had varying periods of unemployment since holding their last regular job of a duration of one month or more. Eight hundred and fifty-seven cases reported that the question of unemployment did not apply in their case, and 622 cases failed to report their employment status.

Of the youths who had never been regularly employed, 166 had been unemployed for a period of less than five months; 65, from five to eight months; 52, from nine to twelve months; 59, from one to two years; and 47, for a period of more than two years. Of those who reported their period of unemployment since holding their last regular job lasting one month or more, 373 had been unemployed for a period of less than five months; 105 from five to eight months; 81, nine to twelve months; 57, one to two years; and 61 cases for a period of more than two years.

That vocational training may be an important factor in the occupational adjustment of youth is revealed by a recent study of 4,601 graduates of day trade and industrial classes in ten north-central states.<sup>1</sup> Although data for that study were collected one year after the graduates had completed their course of vocational training, it was found that only 10 per cent of the total number of youths were unemployed. However, 34.9 per cent of the youths were still enrolled in educational institutions, and data were not included for 8.4 per cent who were not contacted in the survey. Of the 2,613 youths who discontinued their formal education coincident with graduation from a vocational course and who, consequently, may be listed as out-of-school youth, 82.2 per cent were gainfully employed full time and only 17.8 per cent were reported as unemployed.

#### HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUMS

To what extent the schools are responsible for the predicament in which the youths in the present study find themselves is rather

<sup>1</sup> Perry G. Frasier, "What Happens to Graduates of Day Trade and Industrial Courses," Tables II and III. Des Moines, Iowa: State Board for Vocational Education, 1938 (unpublished).

difficult to state. However, a study of the curriculums of the six high schools in these four areas may throw some light on the subject. An investigation of the total pupil hours of enrolment in the various subjects revealed that there has been no perceptible change during the past decade.

At the beginning of the decade, as at present, 70 per cent of the total pupil hours of enrolment was given to academic subjects; 28 per cent to the practical subjects, including agriculture, commerce, home economics, and industrial arts; and less than 2 per cent was given to vocational subjects.

Among the practical subjects more time was given to commercial subjects than to agriculture, home economics, and industrial arts combined, although the last three subjects give opportunities for exploratory experiences in the occupations in which the majority of workers in the local communities are employed. Clerical occupations employ only about a seventh of all gainful workers in the area.

The vocational courses which offer training in preparation for entrance into gainful employment were entirely neglected in half the high schools and were available to but a limited number of pupils in the other schools. In one of these cities, which enrolls more than 4,000 pupils in its secondary schools, 1,681 pupils expressed their desire to attend a vocational school and named the courses that they would like to pursue.

#### OCCUPATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES

That there is little relation between educational opportunities in the secondary schools and the occupational opportunities in these communities is revealed by a study of the occupational distribution of gainful workers. A compilation of occupational statistics for the four communities revealed that 35 per cent of all gainful workers in 1930 were engaged in production occupations: 2 per cent in agriculture and allied occupations and 33 per cent in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits. Thirty-one per cent were engaged in distribution occupations: 12 per cent in transportation and communication and 19 per cent in trade. Thirty-four per cent were engaged in service occupations, of whom approximately 2 per cent were en-



gaged in public service, 8 per cent in professional service, 11 per cent in domestic and personal service, and 13 per cent in clerical service.

When these occupational statistics were analyzed from the standpoint of levels of employment, it was found that only 7 per cent of all gainful workers in these communities were engaged as professional workers, 10 per cent as proprietary workers, 26 per cent as white-collar workers, and 57 per cent as manual workers. Of the manual workers, 17 per cent were skilled, 25 per cent were semi-skilled, and 15 per cent were unskilled.

It is evident that, for maximum occupational opportunities, youths preparing to enter gainful employment in the local community should have been directed toward these occupations by vocational guidance and training in approximately these ratios. However, data presented in this study show that few of these youths had had opportunities for vocational training of any kind while enrolled in their respective high schools.

#### EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH

Although contemporary educational literature is filled with reports of an emerging new philosophy of secondary education, these schools have continued to maintain curriculums devoted primarily to preparing youth to enter college. The only noticeable change in education has been the lowering of educational standards so that the great majority of pupils, who do not intend to go to college, may have the empty honor of being graduated from high school.

The solution of the youth problem, insofar as occupational life is concerned, lies in the development of a complete program of education which should include the following: (1) a basic program of general education, (2) a functional program of vocational guidance, (3) exploratory experiences in the worthy occupations in the community, (4) vocational training in preparation for entrance into a chosen occupation, (5) placement in the occupation for which the pupil is trained, (6) follow-up and adjustment after placement, and (7) opportunities for extension training to prepare for promotion or to keep up with technological changes.

## CLASSROOM VISITATION IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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★

### PURPOSE OF INVESTIGATION

THE terms "supervision" and "classroom visitation" have frequently been held to be synonymous. In its earliest concept, supervision was classroom visitation, but gradually supervision has assumed a more comprehensive meaning. A variety of practices has been developed which have come to be accepted as desirable supervisory techniques. That classroom visitation is still given a large place in a well-organized program of supervision is indicated by the almost universal practice of employing general and special supervisors.

"Classroom visitation," like "supervision," is a comprehensive term. It carries little meaning unless its purposes and techniques are known. To be effective, it must be acceptable to teachers. Melby<sup>1</sup> found that neither high-school nor elementary-school teachers appeared to be particularly enthusiastic about the help which they had received from classroom visitation. Teachers as a group are conscientious and desire to improve their teaching, and they will gladly accept supervisory help through visitation if a felt need is satisfied.

The purpose of the investigation reported in this article was to determine the status of classroom visitation in the junior high school and teacher reaction to its effectiveness. A total of 133 teachers in six Minneapolis junior high schools, representing all departments and constituting half of the teachers in these schools, participated in the study. A questionnaire was used to collect the data. Five principals of the six co-operating schools also returned questionnaires.

<sup>1</sup> Ernest O. Melby, *A Critical Study of the Existing Organization and Administration of Supervision*, p. 102. Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1929.

## RESULTS

*Practices employed.*—Teachers and principals were asked to indicate the practices used and their opinions about certain attitudes toward classroom visitation by the principal. Their replies are tabulated in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
ATTITUDES EXPRESSED BY PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS TOWARD  
CLASSROOM VISITATION BY THE PRINCIPAL

QUESTION	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS*		NUMBER OF TEACHERS	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Do you know in advance when the principal will visit you?.....		5	4	125
Would you like to know when the principal is coming to visit you?.....		3	26	99
Would you prefer that the principal visit you only on invitation?.....		5	5	124
Have you invited the principal to visit you?.....	5		89	41
Do you have a tendency to feel uneasy when the principal visits you?.....		5	18	109
Does the principal take notes during visitation?.....	1	4	7	113
Does the principal use check lists, rating scales, etc., during the visit?.....		5	3	112
Does the principal keep a record of visitation?.....	1	4	11†	25†

\* The wording in the questionnaire submitted to principals was, naturally, changed. For example, Question 1 read: "Do your teachers know in advance when you will visit them?"

† The response to this question was small.

Teachers do not know in advance when the principal will visit them, nor do they, for the most part, care to know. Only 21 per cent of the teachers answering the question indicated that they would like to know. Equally evident is the indication that the teachers do not desire that the principal visit them only on invitation. A majority, 68 per cent, of the teachers responding to the question have invited their principals to visit them, while only 14 per cent have a tendency to feel uneasy when the principal is present in their classes. The answers of the principals parallel those of the teachers. These findings would bespeak, in general, a wholesome relation between principal and teacher.

Teachers who indicated that they feel uneasy during the principal's visit were asked to indicate the reasons for their uneasiness. Of the eighteen teachers, sixteen gave their reasons. Although the total number represents only 14 per cent of the respondents to the question, the reasons given may be of interest. These reasons and the number of teachers indicating each is as follows: natural tendency toward any visitor, 3; nervous, 3; critical attitude of principal, 3; self-conscious, 2; "don't always do my best teaching," 2; "had so little of it," 1; "not always sure of attitude," 1; naturally shy, 1. More than half of these replies can be attributed to the teacher's natural tendencies and are not related to the personality of the principal. Only four of the replies indicate a personal feeling that the principal is inclined to be too critical.

Principals do not make a practice of taking notes during their visits. They do not use such objective devices as check lists or rating scales nor keep records of their visitations. One principal reported that he takes notes during visitation and keeps a record of his visits. The teachers' responses indicate, however, that the practices of making notes and keeping records are not generally used. Only thirty-six teachers replied to the question; many of the others simply answered, "I don't know." In general the answers of the principals corroborate those of the teachers, with the principals as a group stating that they do not keep records of their visits.

*Length of visit.*—As is shown in Table 2, the teachers estimate that principals spend less than half a period when visiting classes. This length of time does not appear to be the rule, however, in all the schools, for in School D ten of the twelve teachers reporting indicate that the principal remains for a half-period, as do thirteen of the twenty-two teachers in School F. The totals listed in Table 2 indicate the same general tendency reported in a previous study<sup>2</sup> at the senior high school level.

Both teachers and principals were asked: "How long do you think the principal should remain when on a supervisory visit?" An attempt was made to classify the answers, and the tabulation is shown

<sup>2</sup> J. M. Hughes and E. O. Melby, *Supervision of Instruction in High School*, p. 36. Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, No. 4. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1930.

in Table 3. One hundred and eight (81 per cent) of all the teachers reached by the questionnaire responded to the question. The reply most frequently given is that the principal should remain for a full period. In the case of the first four ranking answers, 71 of the 108

TABLE 2

PRINCIPALS' AND TEACHERS' ESTIMATES OF LENGTH OF STAY  
MADE BY PRINCIPAL WHEN VISITING CLASSES

LENGTH OF VISIT	FREQUENCY OF MENTION BY PRINCIPALS	FREQUENCY OF MENTION BY TEACHERS	FREQUENCY OF MENTION BY TEACHERS IN SCHOOL					
			A	B	C	D	E	F
Full period.....	.....	9	6	1	1	1	.....	.....
Half-period.....	3	35	4	2	4	10	2	13
Less than half-period...	2	76	12	19	18	1	17	9

TABLE 3

OPINIONS OF 108 TEACHERS CONCERNING PROPER LENGTH OF  
PRINCIPAL'S STAY WHEN VISITING CLASSES

Proper Length of Visit	Frequency of Mention	Proper Length of Visit	Frequency of Mention
Full period.....	25	Less than a half-period.....	3
Depends on type of lesson....	18	Step in, make whatever contact wanted, leave.....	1
Until he knows the outcome....	15	Depends on teacher as an indi- vidual.....	1
At least a half-period.....	13	I don't think it matters.....	1
Half-period.....	9	Visiting is not really necessary..	1
Short time.....	7	Like to have casual visitors....	1
To satisfy the purpose of his visit.....	6	Often and not too long.....	1
Should be up to principal.....	6		

teachers believe that, depending on the type of lesson, principals should remain from a minimum of a half-period to a full period. Evidently the teachers' opinions are at variance with the present general practice. The statements of the principals are given below.

1. At least half a period, longer at times. Later in the term a short visit is of some help. With new teachers, I, at times, go back for the second half of the period on another day. One cannot judge of the merits of the recitation unless he gets somewhat the whole picture.

2. Usually a half-period or less—unless. Because the class usually uses more than a half-period for study.
3. Probably all the discussion part of the period, in order to get the complete picture, not just a fragment.
4. Varies with purpose of the visit. General administration of building has prevented anything like adequate visitation.
5. Depends on the subject and work taking place at the time.

Of equal interest are the reasons given by the teachers for their statements as to the suggested length of the principal's supervisory visits. Typical of the answers given by the group favoring a full period are the following:

1. In order to get a good cross-section of what is going on a full period is needed.
2. To see all the class activities.
3. To get the continuity of the work.
4. To get the whole picture, better understanding of purposes, organization, activity, results.
5. To get a complete understanding of situations and problems in a classroom or laboratory.
6. Gives the teacher an opportunity to accomplish something; fairer to the teacher.

Those believing that the type of lesson should determine the length of the visit gave reasons such as these:

1. He should stay long enough to know the teacher's purpose in giving the lesson and to see the pupils' reactions to the work presented.
2. Some types of work can be evaluated in a short period. Others require a full period to determine whether the objective is achieved.
3. If it is a drill or checking answers, a short time would suffice. If it is presentation or discussion, a longer visit would be needed to evaluate fairly the work.
4. If the lesson is developmental, he should remain for the whole period.

*Supervisory practices considered most helpful by teachers.*—Teachers were asked to state, from their experiences, what practices or techniques a principal could use in his visits that would prove most helpful to them. A wide variety of answers was submitted, and an attempt was made to classify them, as shown in Table 4. The answer with the highest frequency suggests conferences after visits, while "Give helpful suggestions" ranks next. The implication in Table 4 seems to be that teachers welcome supervision which results in helpful, understanding assistance. However, what constitutes helpful assistance appears to vary among teachers. Eleven



teachers suggest that the principal join in the class discussion, while three suggest the opposite and six believe that he should not divert the attention of the class. Again, four recommend making notations and one invites the use of check lists or rating scales, while three prefer informal visits and three others want no notes used.

TABLE 4  
OPINIONS OF TEACHERS CONCERNING MOST HELPFUL  
PRACTICES AND TECHNIQUES THAT A PRINCIPAL  
CAN USE WHEN VISITING CLASSES

Practice	Frequency of Mention
Have conference after visit. . . . .	28
Give helpful suggestions. . . . .	16
Join in class activity and discussion. . . . .	11
Should not divert class attention. . . . .	6
Show friendly attitude. . . . .	5
Make notations and discuss later. . . . .	4
Make informal visits. . . . .	3
Have an occasional conference. . . . .	3
Use no notes. . . . .	3
Ask questions on techniques used. . . . .	3
Understand the aims of the teachers. . . . .	3
Give credit where credit is due. . . . .	3
Give his evaluation. . . . .	2
Give a word of encouragement. . . . .	2
Do not enter into class discussion. . . . .	2
Demonstrate by teaching lesson. . . . .	2
Use check lists, ratings, etc. . . . .	1
Discuss problems of class. . . . .	1
Make short, frequent visits. . . . .	1
Come and go as he pleases. . . . .	1
Set a keynote of order and discipline. . . . .	1
Come in, sit down, listen a while. . . . .	1

*Teacher-principal conferences.*—The specialists in the field of supervision have, with unanimity, recommended that conferences with teachers should follow classroom visitation. The teachers canvassed in this study give the conference first place in their suggestions for the most helpful practices that principals can use to assist them. Teacher-principal conferences, then, appear to take on aspects of importance in a supervisory program. Some practices in the holding of such conferences were listed in the questionnaire, and the results are shown in Table 5. These indicate that it is not the

TABLE 5  
FREQUENCY, TYPES, AND BENEFITS OF CONFERENCES  
BETWEEN PRINCIPAL AND TEACHER AFTER  
PRINCIPAL'S VISIT TO CLASS

	Number of Principals	Number of Teachers
Does the principal precede his visit with a conference?		
Yes.....		6
No.....	4	120
Does the principal <i>never</i> hold a conference after a class visitation?		
Yes.....		16
No.....	3	62
Does the principal <i>always</i> hold a conference after a class visitation?		
Yes.....		3
No.....	3	96
Does the principal <i>sometimes</i> hold a conference after a class visitation?		
Yes.....	5	97
No.....		15
Do you believe the principal <i>should</i> always have a conference with a teacher after a class visitation?		
Yes.....	1	32
No.....	4	92
Types of discussion taking place in conferences:*		
Teacher feels free to ask for assistance in solution of a problem.....	5	102
Conference is a joint discussion of the recitation.....	4	81
Teacher's attention is called to helpful articles or books.....	4	71
Principal suggests several techniques, but selection is left to the teacher.....	3	68
Successful and unsuccessful aspects of the recitation are equally emphasized.....	3	44
Principal suggests experimentation as a means of solving problems.....	4	42
Successful aspects of the recitation are emphasized.....	4	35
Principal directs the teacher to use specific methods to overcome problems.....	1	18
Unsuccessful aspects of the recitation are emphasized.....	1	10
Principal does all the evaluating of the recitation.....		1
Teacher does all the evaluating of the recitation.....		

\* Twenty-one teachers, or 15.8 per cent, failed to respond to this part of the questionnaire.

TABLE 5—Continued

	Number of Principals	Number of Teachers
Benefits received by teacher from conferences:†		
Help in determining how to motivate pupils.....	5	67
Help in determining how to care for individual differences.....	5	63
Help in determining how to increase participation of pupils.....	5	47
Help in determining how to improve discipline.....	4	39
Help in determining methods to teach pupils how to study.....	2	26
Help in determining how to develop units of instruction.....	2	17
Help in determining how to improve reading ability of pupils.....	3	17
Help in determining better use of classroom equipment, such as maps, and collateral material.....		17
Help in making better assignments.....	2	14
Help in determining better routine management, such as passing papers and taking roll.....	1	16
Help in building drill exercises.....		5

† Thirty-four teachers, or 25.6 per cent, failed to respond to this part of the questionnaire.

practice to hold conferences preceding visitation and not always following visitation.

When asked whether the principal should always hold conferences with teachers after class visitation, the majority of both principals and teachers replied in the negative. The implication appears to be that conferences should be held only when suggestions for improvement are to be made. However, to use a statement made in another study, "if it may be assumed that a supervisory visit is of little value to a teacher unless some effort is made to make the results of the observation available to the teacher,"<sup>1</sup> it might be presumed that the value to the teacher might be as great if the observation resulted in commendation only.

A check list was included in the questionnaire containing eleven topics that might cover some of the more important topics of dis-

<sup>1</sup> J. M. Hughes, "A Study in High-School Supervision," *School Review*, XXXIV (February, 1926), 120.

cussion in conferences between teacher and principal. The data in Table 5 on this point indicate that in general the discussions are democratically conducted, since 81 teachers, or 61 per cent of the total number to whom questionnaires were submitted, indicate that the conference is a joint discussion. Equally commendable is the inference drawn from the fact that 102 teachers, or 77 per cent of the total number, feel free to ask for assistance in the solution of problems. Significant, too, is the number of teachers (71) who checked the statement that their attention is called to helpful articles and books, as is the number of teachers (68) who indicated that the principal suggests several techniques but leaves the selection to the teacher. Of lesser frequency but suggestive of practices are the numbers of teachers who report that the successful and the unsuccessful aspects of the recitation are equally emphasized, that the principal suggests experimentation as a means of solving problems, and that the successful aspects of the recitation are emphasized. Apparently there is little tendency to emphasize the unsuccessful aspects of a recitation. The frequencies of mention by principals in general parallel those of the teachers.

The teachers were asked to check from a list of possible benefits those that they believed they had received. Principals were likewise asked to indicate the benefits which, in their opinion, the teacher had gained from the conference. It is evident that major emphasis is placed on assisting teachers to motivate pupils and to care for individual differences, while in such questions as improving the reading ability of pupils, making assignments, and building drill exercises, the proportions responding are small.

#### SUMMARY

Teachers do not know in advance when the principal will visit them, nor do they indicate that they would like to know. A fairly large number, 68 per cent, have invited the principal to visit them, while only a very small number, 14 per cent, reveal a tendency to feel uneasy when the principal is present in their classes. Principals in general take no notes during their visits, use no objective techniques such as check lists or rating scales, and keep no records of their visits.

In general the visits of principals are short, less than a half-period. A significant number of teachers believe that principals should remain at least a half-period to a full period, depending in part on the type of lesson, or that he should remain until he knows the outcome of the lesson.

Conferences after visitation are sometimes held, but not always, nor do teachers and principals believe that conferences should always be held. However, as measures that would prove most helpful to them, teachers more frequently mentioned conferences after supervisory visits than any other practice. Discussions during teacher-principal conferences are democratically conducted. A joint discussion of the recitation is usually held, and the teacher feels free to ask for assistance in the solution of a problem. A fairly large number of teachers (74.4 per cent) indicated that some benefits have been received from the teacher-principal conference, although 25.6 per cent failed to state any benefits. Sixteen per cent failed to reveal the types of discussions that take place during the conference.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

G. T. BUSWELL AND MANDEL SHERMAN  
University of Chicago

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**A**N EXPLANATION should be made of the fact that some of the books and articles which belong in the field of educational psychology are not included in this summary. A number of studies of learning, mental growth, and individual differences in preschool children are included in the list of references on preschool education. Again, a number of studies in learning in the school subjects or the psychology of the school subjects are included in the lists of selected references on the school subjects. It was thought best to include these studies in the lists mentioned in order that the needs of persons interested in those subjects would be adequately met.

### GENERAL AND THEORETICAL DISCUSSIONS

334. CONKLIN, EDMUND S., and FREEMAN, FRANK S. *Introductory Psychology for Students of Education*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1939. Pp. xii+558.  
A textbook for the students who plan to apply their psychology chiefly to the field of education. Genetic point of view followed throughout the book.
335. GRIFFITH, C. R. *Psychology Applied to Teaching and Learning*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1939. Pp. xii+650.  
A somewhat more concise treatment than the author's earlier book on educational psychology. Uses numerous devices to aid the student, such as pre-views, summaries, bibliographies, questions, and exercises.
336. JUDD, CHARLES HUBBARD. *Educational Psychology*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939. Pp. xx+566.  
A general textbook based on social psychology to a greater extent than is true of most textbooks. Contains excellent treatments of language, number, science, and the arts. The treatment proceeds from a biological point of view and emphasizes analyses of mental processes more than statistical methods of dealing with data.
337. LA RUE, DANIEL WOLFORD. *Educational Psychology*. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1939. Pp. xii+398.  
An elementary general textbook.



338. MURSELL, JAMES LOCKHART. *Educational Psychology*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. x+324.  
A textbook for beginning students in educational psychology. The author avoids controversial disputes and gives the student a straightforward account of the main content of educational psychology and its bearing on educational problems.
339. MURSELL, JAMES LOCKHART. *The Psychology of Secondary School Teaching*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1939 (revised). Pp. xiv+456.  
A revision and enlargement of the author's earlier (1932) publication bearing the same title.
340. PRATT, CARROLL CORNELIUS. *The Logic of Modern Psychology*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. xvi+186.  
A discussion of psychology from the viewpoint of philosophy and logic. Primarily for the advanced student in educational psychology.
341. REED, HOMER BLOSSER. *Psychology and Teaching of Secondary-School Subjects*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939. Pp. xviii+684.  
A general, inclusive treatment of the data in this field. Mainly descriptive rather than analytical.

LEARNING<sup>1</sup>

342. BROWNELL, WILLIAM A. (chairman). "Psychology of Learning, General Methods of Teaching, and Supervision," *Review of Educational Research*, IX (June, 1939), 255-94, 312-27.  
A review of research studies on learning during the years 1936-38, inclusive. Contains extensive bibliography.
343. MUDGE, EVELYN L. *Transfer of Training in Chemistry*. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education, No. 26. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1939. Pp. x+76.  
A useful addition to the available data on transfer.
344. PURNELL, RUSSELL T., and DAVIS, ROBERT A. *Directing Learning by Teacher-made Tests*. Boulder, Colorado: Extension Division of the University of Colorado, 1939. Pp. viii+92.  
A study of the relation between testing and types of learning.
345. SALISBURY, FRANK SEELY. *Human Development and Learning*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xviii+514.  
An organismic interpretation of psychology for the beginning student. Covers broad series of topics.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 581 (Brownell) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1939, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

346. THIELE, C. L. *The Contribution of Generalization to the Learning of the Addition Facts*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 763. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. viii+84. An excellent study of transfer by generalization as illustrated from an experiment with more than five hundred children in learning certain aspects of arithmetic.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES<sup>1</sup>

347. BLAIR, GLENN MYERS. *Mentally Superior and Inferior Children in the Junior and Senior High School*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 766. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. xii+88. An analysis of various characteristics of 446 superior and 455 mentally inferior pupils from junior and senior high schools.
348. EVANS, JOAN. *Taste and Temperament*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1939. Pp. 128. An attempt to relate type of artistic taste to individual temperament. Discusses implications for the teaching of art in school.
349. GILLILAND, ADAM RAYMOND, and CLARK, E. L. *Psychology of Individual Differences*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1939. Pp. xvi+536. A general treatment of the usual topics relating to individual differences. Also deals with applications to certain special fields, such as business and industry.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT<sup>2</sup>

350. BÜHLER, CHARLOTTE. *The Child and His Family*. Translated by Henry Beaumont. New York: Harper & Bros., 1939. Pp. viii+188. Data are given on a study of relations between children and their families. This work was done under the direction of Charlotte Bühler, whose previous work in child development in Vienna is well known.
351. LANDIS, CARNEY, and HUNT, WILLIAM A. *The Startle Pattern*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1939. Pp. x+168. The report of a study of the startle pattern, which is considered to be one of the basic reaction patterns of infants. A number of different types of individuals were examined, and motion-picture records were obtained.
352. SHUTTLEWORTH, FRANK K. *The Physical and Mental Growth of Girls and Boys Age Six to Nineteen in Relation to Age at Maximum Growth*. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. IV,

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 612 (Heaton and Weedon) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1939, number of the *School Review*.

<sup>2</sup> See also Item 420 in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1939, number, Items 121 (Anderson) and 151 (Skodak) in the March, 1940, number, and Items 174 (Brown) and 206 (Anderson) in the April, 1940, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

No. 3. Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1939. Pp. vi+292.

An exhaustive study of children from six to nineteen years of age, in which the author investigated the relation between physical and mental growth. The items usually employed as indices of growth are charted and correlated with the results of mental tests. Gives a large number of tables which include not only the raw data but the relations among the various factors of growth.

353. STUART, HAROLD C., and STAFF. *Studies from the Center for Research in Child Health and Development, School of Public Health, Harvard University: I. The Center, the Group under Observation, Sources of Information, and Studies in Progress*. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. IV, No. 1. Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1939. Pp. xiv+262.

A description of the methods of research at the Center for Research in Child Health and Development of Harvard University. Detailed data are given on the various phases of the work with the children, and the results of many of the measurements are tabulated.

354. TRYON, CAROLINE McCANN. *Evaluations of Adolescent Personality by Adolescents*. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. IV, No. 4. Washington: Society for Research in Child Development, National Research Council, 1939. Pp. x+84.

The report of a study of the aspects of personality which children consider desirable in one another. The children employed in this study were those who have been investigated as part of the Growth Study of Adolescents at the University of California Institute of Child Welfare. Twenty personality traits were evaluated by boys and girls in terms of their ratings or opinions of one another. The data show the rank orders and the changes with growth.

355. WITTY, PAUL A., and SKINNER, CHARLES E. (editors). *Mental Hygiene in Modern Education*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1939. Pp. x+540.

A collection of writings on topics in the field of personality and mental hygiene. There are chapters on mental and emotional growth, mental hygiene of the school child, personality development, personality disorders, and the practical aspects of the use of child-development material.

#### MENTAL GROWTH AND MENTAL MEASUREMENT<sup>1</sup>

356. JENKINS, MARTIN D. "The Intelligence of Negro Children," *Educational Method*, XIX (November, 1939), 106-12.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 453 (Thomson) in the list of selected references appearing in the June, 1939, number of the *School Review*, Item 480 (Tiegs) in the September, 1939, number of the *Elementary School Journal*, and Items 130 (Gesell, Amatruda, Castner, and Thompson) and 143 (Nelson and Richards) in the March, 1940, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

A discussion of some of the problems involved in the testing of the intelligence of Negro children. Shows that the kind of score made depends, to a great extent, on the geographical area from which the subjects are recruited. Jenkins states that in certain southern localities as many as thirty points of difference in intelligence quotient have been reported. Furthermore, there is a great deal of overlapping in individual scores, and differences within the groups are frequently greater than differences between the groups.

357. *Mental and Physical Development*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. IX, No. 1. Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1939. Pp. 142.

A review of investigations published between 1935 and 1938 on mental and motor abilities and physical growth from birth to maturity.

#### PERSONALITY<sup>1</sup>

358. DOLLARD, JOHN; DOOB, LEONARD W.; MILLER, NEAL E.; MOWRER, O. H.; SEARS, ROBERT R., and OTHERS. *Frustration and Aggression*. New Haven, Connecticut: Published for the Institute of Human Relations by Yale University Press, 1939. Pp. viii+210.

A theoretical discussion of frustration and aggression documented with references from many previous studies. The book was written by eight collaborators from the Institute of Human Relations. The assumption is that aggression results from frustration. The central doctrine assumed is the one originally developed by Freud. There are chapters on the general problem of frustration and aggression, adolescence, the process of socialization, criminality, behavior in primitive societies, and a general discussion of some types of political behavior.

359. GUILFORD, J. P., and GUILFORD, R. B. "Personality Factors N and GD," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, XXXIV (April, 1939), 239-48.

A further attempt to evaluate by statistical methods some basic personality traits. The assumption is made that there is a physiological basis which determines personality differences.

360. SPENCER, DOUGLAS. *Fulcrum of Conflict*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1938. Pp. xii+306.

A report of a study of personality conflict by means of tests which were devised as a result of a long period of case study. A theoretical discussion is also included of the problems and methods of personality evaluation, and extensive tabular material is presented.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 137 (Jersild and Fite) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1940, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

# Educational Writings

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## REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A BOOK OF "TESTIMONIALS" ON ENGLISH AS EXPERIENCE.—In 1935 the Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English issued a monograph (*An Experience Curriculum in English*) designed to serve as a pattern curriculum in English from kindergarten to college. From its inception it was destined to exert a great influence on curriculum-making in English at all levels of education and in all sections of the country. Widespread interest in *An Experience Curriculum in English* is attested by the sale to date of nearly twenty-five thousand copies, by the unmistakable influence it has had on recent textbooks and courses of study, and by the almost universal reference to English as experience in current professional discussions in the field.

The commission which prepared *An Experience Curriculum in English* was careful to point out that the pattern curriculum which was proposed was "not itself to be worn," that it was "merely an instrument to assist in the cutting" (p. v) of new patterns in local schools. The sponsors of the monograph and the members of the commission itself have been curious to know to what extent the book has served as a pattern—whether the notion of English as experience has affected classroom practices in teaching. To procure information on this point, the National Council of Teachers of English in 1937 appointed a committee of five persons under the chairmanship of Angela M. Broening. All council members were invited to submit short narrative accounts illustrative of the teaching of English as experience. In addition, individual invitations were sent to 175 persons "who were known to the committee to be doing outstanding teaching of English" (p. ix). A gratifying response from 274 teachers of English furnishes the content for a new volume<sup>2</sup> which is, in a very real sense, a sequel to the first. Here are presented and interpreted "testimonials" from a representative group of teachers from all sections of the country who are putting into operation the spirit and the principles of *An Experience Curriculum in English*.

Miss Broening and her committee faced no small task in organizing 274 separate and varied accounts of teaching procedures into a unified and readable

<sup>2</sup> Angela M. Broening (chairman), Ethel Mabie Falk, W. Wilbur Hatfield, Doris E. McEntyre, and Margaret Southwick, *Conducting Experiences in English*. A Report of a Committee of the National Council of Teachers of English, Based on the Contributions of 274 Co-operating Teachers of English. A Publication of the National Council of Teachers of English. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1939. Pp. xvi+394. \$2.25.

book. They were guided in their organization by the kinds of questions and problems which confront teachers of English who attempt to put the "experience idea" into practice. Part I, "Directing Experiences through Literature," contains five chapters, which bear the following titles: "Intensive and Extensive Reading," "Extensive Reading," "Devices To Assist Pupils To Experience Literature," "Free Reading," and "Reading and Out-of-School Sources." Here the reader will find approximately fifty accounts detailing classroom practices in teaching literature on such widely scattered topics as the use of a near blizzard as the point of departure for a unit on "Winter Lyrics" or the study of classical myths through reference to "*Atlas Cement*, *Vulcan Toasters*, *Hercules Hooks*, *Ajax Tires*, *Prometheus Plate Warmers*, *Nectar Tea*, *Venus Pencils*, and *Midas Metal Polisher*" (p. 23). Part II, "Sharing Experiences through Communication," has ten chapters on a rather wide range of expression activities: "Conversing," "Letter-writing," "Reacting Creatively to Literature and to Life," "Producing a Newspaper or Magazine," "Broadcasting," "Dramatizing," "Choral Speaking and Oral Reading," "Using English for Practical Affairs," "Preserving the Social Amenities," and "Sharing Experiences in an Integrated Program."

Part III, "Solving Teaching-supervisory Problems," offers in four chapters a wealth of anecdotal accounts of teaching-supervisory practices in which teachers and supervisors have solved such problems as these: "How shall . . . units be graded? Articulated? How shall growth be appraised? What corrective teaching will be needed? What instructional equipment will be required to put into effect the experience-centered course developed locally?" (P. 261.) That teachers and supervisors out in the field are attacking these problems is made evident by illuminating accounts of actual classroom practices.

The main body of the report, which gives nearly three hundred thumbnail sketches of innovating teaching procedures, is followed by certain general conclusions with respect to recent trends in the English curriculum. There are unmistakable trends toward a more flexible curriculum and toward a more successful articulation of English instruction with the expressional demands on pupils both in and out of school. In the words of the committee, "English is now being served *à la carte*" (p. 341).

In format and organization the book has many things to commend it. It is attractively bound; the clear type and well-arranged page add pleasure to the reading; and the book is exceptionally well indexed. In addition, the book contains four helpful appendixes. The first presents an alphabetical list of eighty-three cities, counties, and states supplying courses of study which were examined by the committee in the preparation of the report. The second contains a bibliography of more than a hundred annotated references on the teaching of English. The third lists and annotates thirty-six professional periodicals which contain occasional articles of interest to the teacher of English. The last gives an annotated list of periodicals for pupils' use.

For the teacher of English who is looking for specific devices and techniques,



for the supervisor who desires an overview of the modern English program in all its ramifications, and for the curriculum-maker who is interested in seeing a basic principle actually in operation in many schools, this new volume should serve a very useful purpose. The reviewer is happy to commend it to all who are interested in the improvement of English instruction.

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EVALUATION OF THE STUDY EXCURSION.—A special method advocated by more than one authority on the teaching of science is the study excursion. Up to the present time, however, but little experimental evidence has been presented to support the arguments made for this teaching device. A contribution to existing knowledge concerning the value of this method may be found in a recently published Doctor's dissertation.<sup>1</sup> School administrators, supervisors, and teachers of physical and social sciences may find here the scientific evidence which they have long been seeking.

The study excursion which Fraser describes was made by forty-six Lincoln School Seniors and some of their teachers to Norris, Tennessee, where they visited Norris Dam. By way of comparison they also visited the plant of the Georgia Power Company at Tallulah, Georgia. In his monograph the author, who was the science teacher of the group, defines the study excursion as "any kind of expedition or trip, definitely organized to achieve certain objectives for young people, and made by a group of students as part of their regular school work" (p. 2). His definition rules out mere pleasure trips and stresses the importance of careful planning. The regular school work in which these pupils were engaged was the study of a unit in a class in American culture. The unit itself was on national and regional planning. Twenty-five days were spent in preparatory work, ten on the trip, and approximately a month on the follow-up study.

Tests were administered at the beginning and at the end of the period allotted to the study of the unit. Through mean gains or losses on objective achievement tests constructed by the author and results on attitude scales, evaluation of the study excursion as a teaching device was made. Change in attitude was measured by the Kelley-Remmers Scale for Measuring Attitude toward Any Institution and by an opinions test constructed by the author. Each pupil also kept a diary while on the trip, an examination of which aided in the interpretation of change of attitude. The pupils, as revealed by their diaries, were enthusiastic over the excursion method. In a direct manner they studied power production and land management on depleted soil. They compared public and private ownership of public utilities by visiting the plants and listening to lectures by officials of both. They lived and worked with native

<sup>1</sup> James Anderson Fraser, *Outcomes of a Study Excursion: A Descriptive Study*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 778. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. vi+84. \$1.60.

farmers of the region. They helped to repair farm buildings, plow, survey land for contour plowing, build dams, spread lime and phosphate, etc.

Results obtained from the final test showed significant gains both in information and in understanding of scientific principles. Changes in attitude were also effected as measured by the Kelley-Remmers scale and the opinions test. An incidental but significant contribution of the study was further proof of the validity of the Kelley-Remmers scale. Both the measures used indicated that a significant change of attitude took place with regard to unlimited individual initiative in farming. The pupils were less favorable toward the issue after they came back. On the other hand, both measures showed that the group changed reliably in the direction of becoming more favorable toward private ownership of utilities. Each of these changes in attitude is of great social significance, and an inference which may be gained from the study is that the method is effective in creating intelligent attitudes and in dispelling biased opinions.

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A LIBRARY PROGRAM THAT IS A PROPHECY.—Dean Johnson's book<sup>1</sup> is entirely misnamed. The title tells only part of the story. This program is not "vitalizing a college library" but "vitalizing the instructional program of a college through the library." The book is an excellent description of Stephens College, for nobody can observe or write about Stephens without giving attention to the library and its relation to the entire program.

The word "vitalizing" strikes the keynote. What in the average library is "nonvital" that Dean Johnson should write of his program as "vital"? Here a library and its services are construed as a functional answer to the needs of the students through its provision of a wide variety of units—books, magazines, pictures, music, etc. In this library, service and circulation comprise the keynote, and there is a departure from the "custodial" function to an "instructional" function.

Many factors make Stephens College an institution unique in American education. It would follow that the library, to be functional, likewise would be unique. This uniqueness is the essence of the vitality of the library and the close relation of library and instruction. In his closing chapter the author urges that what he has described is of value to the reader only as the latter sees the contribution of the library to that particular institution. Hence features at Stephens might or might not contribute to the effectiveness and the vitalizing of another library. That philosophy and practice are sound.

"General education" has tended to become a slogan or a catchword. Stephens College has put the implications of the term into a functional program by in-

<sup>1</sup> B. Lamar Johnson, *Vitalizing a College Library*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1939. Pp. xviii+122. \$2.00.

volying the library (and the students by their use of those resources) in the program.

Faculty use of, and responsibility for, the library is an important factor in a vital instructional program. Dean Johnson has described a technique which has implications for use in secondary schools and higher institutions. The continuous revision of bibliographies, the involvement of new faculty members, faculty responsibility for circulation—these are procedures adaptable to any school or college library.

"Library materials" assume a new nature in this book. Pictures, records and music, plus the usual books, magazines, and pamphlets circulate in this vital library. These are the materials of the classroom and of learning; hence the library serves as a circulating heart to the pulsating arteries of the college. Public schools might meet some problems in attempting to circulate pictures for pupils "to live with" for a semester, but they could make adaptations, such as circulating good reproductions to classrooms. Not all schools have adequate reserves for personal, student "room sets" of non-textbooks for free reading, but here is a definite, vital way in which a free-reading program has been made effective. There are many values in the circulation of unmarked, uncatalogued books, especially when consideration is given to the psychological influence on the student of having in his room a book which does not have the telltale cataloguer's markings on the back.

Readers are undoubtedly more likely to take sides on the issue of decentralization than on any other part of the book. If the library is to become (or remain) a vital part of the school program, the manner of operating it must be in terms of that program. Present trends in curriculum development indicate an increasing use of many materials and an increasing use of materials within the classroom at the time of need. This procedure means careful planning, especially if all source materials are in a remote repository.

Establishing departmental libraries has vitalized the college program by (1) placing materials close at hand, (2) enabling instructors and students to work together from a common body of resources, and (3) providing directed instruction in library usage. If these results are agreed on as desirable, then the question of centralization or decentralization is academic unless, indeed, one is willing to accept the implication of this volume, namely, vitalize a program by providing at such places such services as will yield optimum benefits.

The challenge, especially voiced in the first chapter, to school and college administrators is pertinent. The personnel, the responsibilities placed on the librarian, the relation of library to instruction, the obligations of the faculty toward the library—all are relevant, and much hinges on the administrative organization.

This volume is of value not only to librarians but to administrators, curriculum workers, and instructors. The point of view is wholesome in that it portrays a total program instead of merely giving an exposition of a library as a special agency. Not all schools can or should introduce this scheme of pro-

cedures, but careful study undoubtedly will reveal ways in which adaptations can be made for increasing the vitality of a total school or college program.

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**MEDICAL EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS.**—The growing consciousness of the responsibility of the school for the health of its pupils is evidenced by the increasing number of articles and textbooks on the subject. One of these books, first published in 1937, has been revised and issued in a second edition<sup>1</sup> this year. As stated in the Preface: "The purpose of this book is to acquaint students of education, teachers in service, and others interested, with the broad general nature of health problems in schools. Its goal is to develop health consciousness among teachers and pupils to as great an extent as possible" (p. v).

After a short introductory chapter on the history of the school health movement, five chapters are devoted to growth and nutrition of children. Physical examination of pupils and its educational aspects are discussed. The control of communicable diseases, lighting and vision, acoustics and hearing, special classes for handicapped children, the tuberculosis problem, mental hygiene, physical education, safety education, and the administration of school health are each the subject of a chapter. This edition has two new chapters dealing with sanitation of the school building and with the teaching of health. Two appendixes also make their appearance in this edition, one on quarantine regulations for various communicable diseases and one on reading-disability problems. The lists of references given at the end of each chapter have been revised and enlarged. New material appears in nine of the original seventeen chapters of the book. The addition of the last two chapters and of the appendixes has enhanced the value of this second edition.

In an evaluation of the textbook on the basis of its stated purpose and goal, it may be said to have accomplished its aim with one or two important exceptions. It should also attain the goal of developing health consciousness among the teachers who become acquainted with it. It is far too advanced to produce this effect among pupils, except secondarily through those same teachers. Relatively little attention is given the subject of ventilation—a factor influencing pupil health which in the majority of schools is under direct control of the classroom teacher. Even less mention is made of the present status of legal provisions concerning the health of school children.

The chief objectionable feature of this book lies in the overemphasis on medical diagnosis and treatment, neither of which should be expected of a teacher in the public schools. The result is a lack of balance that slights the educational point of view. For example, while a chapter is given to the educational aspects of

<sup>1</sup> Laurence B. Chenoweth and Theodore K. Selkirk, *School Health Problems*. With a Chapter on School Health Administration by Richard Arthur Bolt. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1940 (second edition). Pp. xii+420. \$3.00.

physical examinations, the subject of the educational utilization of the findings of the examinations is covered in a single short paragraph.

Medical emphasis includes not only physical diagnosis but differential diagnosis as well. Teachers should be alert to detect abnormalities of physical appearance which may indicate the onset of communicable diseases, but the differential diagnosis between smallpox and chicken pox (p. 142) would hardly be considered a responsibility of the teacher. The reproduction of Roentgen-ray negatives showing advanced pulmonary tuberculosis in adults (pp. 262, 263) is of little use unless teachers are acquainted with the Roentgen-ray appearance of a normal chest. Teachers might well be wary of accepting at its face value the statement that an epileptic individual "should be isolated during his reproductive period" (p. 244). The discussions of the treatment for the prevention of simple goiter (p. 132) and of the proper regime for a child having persistent râles in the chest following acute bronchitis (p. 135) seem out of place in a textbook for teachers and students of education. Members of the medical profession rather than school teachers are usually relied on to make diagnoses and direct treatment for children suffering such physical disabilities.

The objectionable features mentioned are, of course, only a small part of this excellent book. In spite of them, the volume is a valuable contribution to the literature of school health and hygiene. It is not suitable for elementary- or secondary-school pupils, but it should be widely utilized in teacher-training institutions. It is also admirably designed to serve as a textbook for courses in the field of school health for graduate students.

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HOW TO LIVE IN TODAY'S WORLD.—Throughout the United States, and especially in California, the orientation course for beginning high-school pupils has become an established part of the curriculum. A professor, a classroom teacher, and a county superintendent have collaborated in the preparation of a volume<sup>1</sup> which is described by one of the authors as "unique in its comprehensiveness. It includes sections devoted to practically every type of problem found in orientation courses" (p. iv).

More than 170 sections are organized within fourteen chapters relating to school, study, leadership, personality, etiquette, bad habits, "dates," home, citizenship, vocation, money, health, safety, and leisure. The "catchy" section titles are aimed at interesting pupils in the problems, such as: "Picking the side shows: how to plan your extra-curricular program," "Bringing up father: how to get your parents to see your point of view," "Information, please: how to get advice and counsel about your vocational plans," and "A fool and his money: how to manage your finances."

<sup>1</sup> Claude C. Crawford, Ethel G. Cooley, and C. C. Trillingham, *Living Your Life: Group Guidance in Study, School Life, and Social Living*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. xxvi+450. \$1.56.

Each section follows the same pattern of development. First, a brief general discussion of the problem gives the rules to be followed by the youth, often containing proverbs, ways of behaving, and "bromides." This discussion is followed by activities "to do," "to decide," "to observe," "to interview," and "to read." The interesting and valuable activities provided for groups and individuals will, under the direction of a good teacher, tend to overcome the "preachy" presentation in the first part.

It is the intention of the authors that this book be "a study guide which will help you to study yourself and the world in which you live" (p. vii); "it includes many more suggestions than any teacher or class can possibly utilize, thus providing the basis for choosing that which fits the local situation" (pp. iv, v). As a guidebook, the activities are good, and the references are up to date. Supplemented by cases presented by the Providence case-conference method (not done in this book), such a volume would be useful in any orientation course.

The illustrations are well chosen and include photographs of youths and adults in socially significant situations and drawings and cartoons which often add a little humor to the consideration of the problem. The references to school and community life offer practical application of the topics to the pupils' everyday problems.

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THE LATEST MODEL IN A SOCIAL-STUDIES TEXTBOOK.—In recent years textbook publishers have given more and more attention to the problem of keeping their publications strictly up to date. This issue is particularly insistent in the field of the social studies because of the extremely rapid changes which are taking place in the world today. Volume V of the second course of textbooks by Harold Rugg dealing with the whole field of social studies appeared in 1931 under the title *An Introduction to Problems of American Culture*. Volume V of the new and revised volumes in the second course has a copyright date of 1940 and the title *Citizenship and Civic Affairs*.<sup>1</sup> It is questionable whether this textbook should be regarded as a revision. The material contained has been entirely rewritten. The publication is in all respects a new book.

This textbook on citizenship is divided into seven units. The first unit of forty-eight pages is a discussion of the general problems and principles of citizenship. The second unit contains a description of the great variety of communities, neighborhoods, and families in America. The third unit deals with the subjects of democracy, of political parties, and of constitutional government in America. The fourth unit tells how the government actually works and includes the making of laws, the administration of laws, the enforcement of laws, the problems of crime and of law violations, and lastly the collection of money for the support of government. The fifth unit deals with the press and with magazines and books

<sup>1</sup> Harold Rugg, *Citizenship and Civic Affairs*. Community and National Life, Book I. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1940. Pp. xvi+610+liv. \$1.88.



and discusses the influences radiating from these sources. Unit VI describes the formation of public opinion and belief, while the last unit discusses education, the American spirit, and the prospects ahead in this country.

One of the strong points in this book is the emphasis on government as it actually works in contrast with political theory. The sections in chapter xii dealing with pressure groups and with bosses and political machines are especially instructive in connection with politics in operation. Another feature of this superior book is the excellent selection of graphs. These are unusually clear and instructive. The illustrations also are numerous and well chosen. Many of them are action pictures, and appropriate use is made of cartoons. The style is direct, interesting, and in places conversational in its organization. Thus the first chapter in the book shows groups of pupils in a social-science club discussing the problems of government. Numerous summaries add value, and at the end of each chapter appears a well-chosen list of additional readings.

The book closes with a good index. The Appendix, as usual, includes the Constitution of the United States, which is followed by an interesting table showing the personnel and character of the principal governments in the world. Then follow the Democratic and the Republican platforms of 1936 and a table showing a comparative analysis of all the party platforms for that year. Next are tables comparing the party platforms for 1932 and 1936. The Appendix concludes with a political platform prepared in 1932 by high-school pupils in a North Carolina school.

In general this textbook represents American textbook-writing at its best. The book is stimulating, it is enriched by a great variety of materials, it is concrete and vivid, and it presents pictures of American life which are familiar to pupils of high-school age. The descriptions of current American scenes are analyzed in such a way that the pupil may better understand his own environment. It is difficult to find anything in this book which should be criticized or changed in any important way. It is very easy to find many things that are exceptionally fine. Without question this textbook is outstanding.

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## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- ADLER, MORTIMER J. *How To Read a Book: The Art of Getting a Liberal Education*. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1940. Pp. x+398. \$2.50.
- BRIGGS, THOMAS H. *Pragmatism and Pedagogy*. The Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. xii+124. \$1.25.
- EATON, ANNE THAXTER. *Reading with Children*. New York: Viking Press, 1940. Pp. 354. \$2.50.

- Education of the Handicapped*: Vol. II, Problems. Edited by Merle E. Framp-ton and Hugh Grant Rowell. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1940. Pp. xiv+440.
- EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Education and Economic Well-being in American Democracy*. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Ad-ministrators, 1940. Pp. 228. \$0.50.
- Safety Education*. Eighteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Adminis-trators, 1940. Pp. 544. \$2.00.
- WASHBURN, CARLETON. *A Living Philosophy of Education*. New York: John Day Co., 1940. Pp. xxii+586. \$4.00 (trade edition), \$3.30 (text edition).
- WILLIAMS, AUBREY W. *Work, Wages, and Education*. The Inglis Lecture, 1940. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. 58. \$1.00.

#### BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ALLEN, NELLIE B. *Europe*. Geographical and Industrial Studies. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1940 (revised). Pp. xvi+420. \$1.12.
- The Barnes Dollar Sports Library: *Archery* (revised) by Natalie Reichart and Gilman Keasey, pp. 96; *Lacrosse* by Tad Stanwick, pp. xii+92; *Riding: A Manual of Horsemanship for Beginners* by Colonel J. J. Boniface, pp. 86; *Roping* (revised) by Bernard S. Mason, pp. 138. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1940. \$1.00 (each).
- BOYKIN, ELEANOR. *This Way, Please: A Book of Manners*. New York: Mac-millan Co., 1940. Pp. xii+336. \$1.40.
- The Chicago Reading Tests. Prepared under the direction of Max D. Engelhart and Thelma Gwinn Thurstone. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: E. M. Hale & Co., 1939.
- Driver Education and Training Manual for High School Teachers*. Washington: American Automobile Association, 1940. Pp. viii+136. \$0.17.
- GUILER, W. S., and COLEMAN, J. H. *Getting the Meaning: A Program for Effec-tive Reading*. Books I, II, and III, pp. 80 (each), \$0.40 (each); *Teachers' Manual*, pp. 44. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1940.
- KEOHANE, MARY PIETERS, and KEOHANE, ROBERT E. *Exploring Your Com-munity*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1940. Pp. xiv+530.
- LOGASA, HANNAH. *Biography in Collections Suitable for Junior and Senior High Schools*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1940 (third edition revised and en-larged). Pp. 152. \$1.50.
- NYBERG, JOSEPH A. *Exercises in Reasoning*. Chicago: Joseph A. Nyberg (10505 South Bell Avenue), 1940. Pp. 84. \$0.50.
- Official Sports Library for Women: *Official Badminton Guide for Women, 1940-45* edited by Marjorie Hillas, pp. 64; *Official Field Hockey Guide for Women and Girls Containing the Revised Rules, 1940* edited by Elizabeth Yeend

- Meyers, pp. 92; *Official Individual Sports Guide: Archery, Tennis, Riding, Golf, 1940-1941* edited by Margaret Fitch Newport, pp. iv+120; *Official Recreational Games and Sports Guide with Track and Field, 1940-1941* edited by Lucia Ernst and A. Irene Horner, pp. 110; *Official Softball and Volley Ball Guide with Official Rules, 1940* edited by Ellen Mosbek and Norma Leavitt, pp. 96. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1940. \$0.25 (each).
- POWDERMAKER, THERESE, and ROWLAND, KATE. *Visual Aids for Teaching Sports*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1940.
- ROBINSON, THOMAS E., and ROBINSON, RICHARD R. *Growing through Problems: A Discussion Course in Character Education*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1940. Pp. iv+108. \$0.40.
- SCHORLING, RALEIGH; CLARK, JOHN R.; POTTER, MARY A.; and DEADY, CARROLL F. *Learning to Compute: A Program for Self-Improvement in Fundamentals of Arithmetic*, Book I and Book II. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1940. Pp. viii+104 (each). \$0.32 (each).
- SMITH, DAVID P., JR., and FAGAN, LESLIE T. *Mathematics Review Exercises: For the Beta and Gamma Requirements*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1940. Pp. viii+280. \$1.28.
- TOWER, OSWALD, and SIDES, WINFIELD, M. *Reviews and Examinations in Algebra*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1940. Pp. vi+176. \$1.20.
- WALCOTT, FRED G., THORPE, CLARENCE D., and SAVAGE, SHIRLEY PAYNE. *Growth in Thought and Expression: Book I*, pp. xii+352, \$0.96; *Book II*, pp. xii+416, \$1.00. Chicago: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1940.
- WASHBURNE, JOHN N. Washburne Social-Adjustment Inventory. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1940. Specimen set, \$0.15; package of 25, \$1.30.

## PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

- BARR, A. S. Performance Record. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1940.
- BUTLER, NICHOLAS MURRAY. *Annual Report for 1939 of the Division of Inter-course and Education of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace*. New York: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Pp. 64.
- Environment and Conflict in Europe*. Eighteen Basic Maps, Text, References, and Index. American Geographical Society Special Publication No. 24. New York: American Geographical Society (Broadway at 156th Street), 1939. Pp. 26+maps. \$1.00.
- Expanding Education To Meet the Needs of Rural Community Life in Virginia*. A Statement Prepared in the State Department of Education for the Commission Appointed by the Governor in 1939 To Study the Curriculum of Virginia Public High Schools. Bulletin of the State Board of Education, Vol. XXII, No. 5. Richmond, Virginia: Division of Purchase and Printing, State Board of Education, 1940. Pp. 44.

- FULLER, RAYMOND G. *Children in Strawberries*. Publication No. 380. New York: National Child Labor Committee (419 Fourth Avenue), 1940. Pp. 22. \$0.25.
- Gold Star List of American Fiction, 1823-1940: Six Hundred Titles Classified by Subject with Notes*. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse Public Library, 1940. Pp. 34.
- HOOVER, CAROL. *Suggestions for Teachers of Reading, Grades VII to XII*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1939. Pp. vi+112. \$0.60.
- Language Leaflets: No. 3, "Modern Foreign Languages and International Business Relations" by Chauncey D. Snow; No. 4, "Modern Foreign Languages and the International Mind" by Nicholas Murray Butler; "Modern Foreign Languages: Their Value for the Scientist" by Frank C. Whitmore; No. 6, "The Importance of Learning Another Language" by Joseph C. Grew. Buffalo, New York: Modern Language Journal (284 Hoyt Street), 1940. \$0.10 (each).
- LEWIN, KURT; LIPPITT, RONALD; and ESCALONA, SIBYLLE KORSCH. *Studies in Topological and Vector Psychology I*. University of Iowa Studies in Child Welfare, Vol. XVI, No. 3. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa Press, 1940. Pp. 308. \$1.35 (paper), \$1.70 (cloth).
- "Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Curriculum Conference and Study Group, the University of Texas, 1939." Austin, Texas: University Cooperative Store, University of Texas, 1940. Pp. ix+277 (mimeographed). \$1.00.
- Proceedings of the Sixteenth Annual Educational Conference and the Fifth Annual Meeting of the Kentucky Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, University of Kentucky*. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XII, No. 2. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1939. Pp. 242. \$0.50.
- State Regulation of Safety Education in the United States, 1940*. Washington: American Automobile Association, 1940 (revised). Pp. 34. \$0.10.
- The Teaching of English Grammar in the Secondary Schools of New Jersey, 1937-38*. An Investigation Sponsored by the New Jersey Council of Education and the Departments of Research and English of the New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair. Caldwell, New Jersey: New Jersey Council of Education (% P. H. Axtell, secretary), 1940. Pp. vi+40. \$0.50.
- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS:
- Misc. 2295 (1939)—*Aviation Courses Federally Aided, 1939* by Robert W. Hambrook. Pp. 16.
- Vocational Division Bulletin No. 202, Occupational Information and Guidance Series No. 2 (1940)—*Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance* by Giles M. Ruch and David Segel. Pp. vi+84. \$0.15.

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